DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 205 521 SP 018 775

| | |
|---|---|
| AUTHOR | Edelfelt, Roy A., Ed.: And Others |
| TITLE | Inservice Education: Demonstrating Local Programs. |
| INSTITUTION | Western Washington Univ., Bellingham. |
| SPONS AGENCY | Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Teacher Corps. |
| PUB DATE | 78 |
| GRANT | G007603470 |
| NOTE | 83p. |
| EDRS PRICE | MF01/PC04 Plus Postage. |
| DESCRIPTORS | Delivery Systems: *Demonstration Programs: *Educational Innovation: Governance: *Inservice Teacher Education: Postsecondary Education: Program Evaluation: *Program Implementation: *Program Validation: School Districts |

ABSTRACT

Seven essays on various aspects of implementing inservice education programs are presented: (1) considerations for developing local inservice education programs: (2) demonstrating collaborative governance: (3) evaluating inservice education: (4) variables affecting the implementation of inservice education programs: (5) techniques and strategies for demonstrating affective practices in inservice teacher education programs: (6) demonstration of delivery systems for inservice education: and (7) institutional responsibility for inservice education. Appended is a list of reports and readings on inservice education projects from the ERIC data base and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. (FG)

**********
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
**********

# DEMONSTRATING LOCAL PROGRAMS

SP 018 775

**Board of Directors**
**Far West Teacher Corps Network**

**Alan R. Brown**
Arizona State University (Tempe)

**Doris Ching**
University of Hawaii (Honolulu)

**Ralph A. Farrow**
Portland Public Schools/Portland State University (Oregon)

**James R. Hale**
Portland State University (Oregon)

**Herbert Hite**
Western Washington University (Bellingham)

**William Kutz**
Eugene School District (Oregon)

**D. M. Murphy**
Alaska Department of Education (Anchorage)

**Robert E. Peryon**
University of Guam (Agana)

**Thomas Ruff**
Washington State University (Pullman)

**Herbert Smith**
Idaho State University (Pocatello)

**Porter Troutman**
University of Nevada (Las Vegas)

**Roger Wilson**
Northern Arizona University (Flagstaff)

**Paul (Randy) Walker**
Executive Secretary
Far West Teacher Corps Network
Western Washington University

**Haroldie K. Spriggs**
Program Specialist
United States Office of Education
Teacher Corps

## Contributors

**William H. Drummond,** Professor, College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville

**Roy A. Edelfelt,** Professional Associate, Division of Instruction and Professional Development, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

**Roland Goddu,** Dean, College of Education, Northeastern University, Boston, Massachusetts

**Kenneth R. Howey,** Associate Professor, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis

**Karl Massanari,** Associate Director, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and Director, ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, Washington, D.C.

**Charles J. Santelli,** Director, Division of Research and Educational Services, New York State United Teachers, Albany

**William L. Smith,** Director, Teacher Corps, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

# INSERVICE EDUCATION
## DEMONSTRATING LOCAL PROGRAMS

Edited by
Roy A. Edelfelt

Western Washington University
Bellingham, Washington

This book was produced under Grant # 007603470 to Western Washington University from the United States Office of Education, Teacher Corps. The opinions expressed herein should not be construed as necessarily representing the opinions of the United States Office of Education. Nor should they be construed as necessarily representing the opinions of any other agency or organization.

Published 1978 by
Western Washington University
Bellingham, Washington 98225
Printed in the United States of America

**Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data**
Inservice education

Includes bibliographic references.
1. Teachers—In-service training—Addresses, essays, lectures.
I. Edelfelt, Roy A.
LB1731. I 545 371.1' 46 78-17711

# Contents


Preface vii

Chapter One
**Considerations for Developing Local Inservice Education Programs**
by Roy A. Edelfelt 1

Chapter Two
**Demonstrating Collaborative Governance**
by William H. Drummond 11

Chapter Three
**Evaluating Inservice Education**
by Kenneth R. Howey 19

Chapter Four
**Variables Impacting on the Implementation of Inservice Education Programs**
by Charles J. Santelli 25

Chapter Five
**Techniques and Strategies for Demonstrating Effective Practices in Inservice Teacher Education Programs**
by Roland Goddu 33

Chapter Six
**Demonstration of Delivery Systems for Inservice Education**
by Karl Massanari 45

Chapter Seven
**Institutional Responsibility for Inservice Education**
by William L. Smith 51

Appendix
**Selected Resources on Inservice Education**
by American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Performance-Based Teacher Education Project 57

# Preface

This volume is addressed to demonstrating innovative local programs in inservice education. Demonstration is not just "show and tell," and programs do not get installed just because they work well in one location. Demonstration is also only worthwhile if there is something special to display. Deciding if demonstration is worth doing requires evaluation. These are some of the topics addressed in this volume.

Also of interest will be the appendix, which identifies some places that readers might want to visit to see particular kinds of demonstrations.

Teacher Corps has been a pioneer in demonstrating innovative inservice education programs. I hope that this contribution to the literature is another significant Teacher Corps effort.

I personally and professionally thank Roy Edelfelt for his outstanding contributions to the Far West Network and to inservice education nationally. Much praise is deserved by Haroldie Spriggs, James Steffensen, and William Smith for their vision and support. Finally, the work of Margo Johnson in production and technical editing has made this volume an attractive and accurate document.

**Paul (Randy) Walker**
Executive Secretary
Far West Teacher Corps Network
Western Washington University
Bellingham, Washington
April 1978

## Chapter One

# Considerations for Developing Local Inservice Education Programs

Roy A. Edelfelt

Most of the recent attention to inservice education has been on circumstances and policy surrounding inservice education, not on actual program. That is, the discussion has been about the conditions, requirements, criteria, policy, and governance of inservice education, not what inservice education is—or what it should be. The frequent assumption is that inservice education means courses and workshops determined, perhaps, by new governance policy and structure that is in the hands of teachers and responsive to teacher needs. But the emphasis is seldom on what such courses and workshops will be, what they will do differently with the consumer in charge, how higher education personnel will function in such a system, and how what is learned will be more related to the actual problems and performance of teachers.

The emphasis last year of the Far West Teacher Corps Network was on a topic related to inservice education—criteria for local programs. Criteria get a step closer to discussion of action on inservice education, and certainly criteria provide some important ideas against which an actual program can be assessed. But attention to criteria is again not very specific for teachers at the local level, who ask, Just what will inservice education be? How can it be undertaken to satisfy the criteria? The demand is often that the options for program be more explicit than traditional courses and workshops suggest.

Much the same lack of explicitness is being experienced by teachers who are heralding the advent of federally supported teacher centers. The expectations go little further than celebration that teacher centers will be supervised by a policy board that is dominated by teachers, and that teacher centers will provide assistance in developing curriculum and improving instruction. There is little clarity about what teacher centers will do. What precisely will teachers do in teacher centers to develop

curriculum or sharpen their skills in teaching? How will curriculum development and the improvement of teaching come to reflect student needs or make possible the application of research findings?

We need specific suggestions and illustrations of actual inservice education programs. This is not to suggest that all the topics surrounding inservice education are unimportant. In fact, it was probably necessary first to talk around inservice education so that the concept and the context were defined and so that the attention of educators and their clients was attracted.

We now have adequate material and ideas in writing on conditions, requirements, and criteria for inservice education, and we need to search out good ideas for inservice education programs.

## How Do We Establish What Action Programs Might Look Like?

Much work has been done on needs assessment. In fact, the term has become shopworn and ambiguous. Also, the term is too indefinite. It does not specify whose perception of teacher needs will be considered and how needs will be assessed.

I prefer to seek out the dissatisfactions of school personnel and others—students, teachers, administrators, and parents—in relation to curriculum and instructional improvement. We must ask questions like the following:

- What are teachers and others dissatisfied with?
- Why does dissatisfaction exist?
- Can dissatisfaction be verified?
- How great is the distance between what is and what should be?
- What priority is put on various dissatisfactions?
- Which dissatisfactions are easiest to remedy?
- Which stand the greatest chance of being reduced?
- Which are next to impossible to deal with?
- Who should be included in decisions and actions to remedy or reduce dissatisfactions?
- How will the ecology of school be influenced by attending to one or several dissatisfactions?
- What factors must be considered before program decisions about inservice education are made?

Rather than discussing in general how such questions might be answered, I will use some illustrations so that actual programs are suggested. In doing so I will avoid illustrations that involve courses and workshops, not because either is unimportant, but because both are so prevalent and we probably know more about them than other approaches.

There are at least three types of possibilities that can be explored in attempting to find additional and more effective approaches to inservice education. First, we should give attention to the ways teachers as individuals might undertake inservice education to improve curriculum and teaching—ways that might make inservice education an integral part of professional practice. Second, it is important to explore ways that groups of teachers can work together on problems and dissatisfactions that relate to school program. Third, it seems essential to find ways to work on school improvement with entire faculties.

Let me begin with two illustrations of approaches to inservice education of individual teachers, illustrations that put the teacher at the center of the process and respond directly to teacher needs as teachers perceive them.

## Illustration #1

Jane Gunter teaches two sections of English 12, one section of English 11, and one section of speech. Early in the first semester she discovers that her two English 12 classes are very different. The second-hour class accepts assignments in literature with interest, and most of the students are usually prepared to discuss the assignments. In the fourth-hour class, by contrast, discussions are very difficult to stimulate. When Jane asks students questions about the readings, it is apparent that little reading has been done or understood. In fact, questions seem to erect barriers between Jane and her students.

In her five years of teaching, Jane has usually had students who have responded to her assignments. Even in her "worst" classes at least half of the students have entered into animated discussion on literature assigned. Thus far in her career she has subscribed to the idea of one preparation for two sections of English 12 and has made it work.

But it does not seem to be working this semester. Jane wonders if she has lost her touch. Have five years of teaching made her calloused, insensitive, and imperceptive?

Fortunately for Jane her high school has several teacher advisors—people who have distinguished themselves as teachers and who have demonstrated superior talents in working with other teachers on teaching problems and inservice education. Jane feels comfortable about contacting Jack Bennett, one of the teacher advisors, to discuss her problem. She explains her dilemma, and they decide that the picture she paints deserves study. Jack agrees to visit her class. He also agrees to find a substitute for one of her other classes that is going well so that she will have some time to study and solve her problem.

After visiting Jane's class Jack encourages Jane to visit Inger Hansen, the guidance counselor, and study the folders of the students in her two English 12 classes. Jane charts IQs, reading scores, courses, and grades for each student. She also studies anecdotal material. She goes over her data with Inger and discovers that most of the students in her second-hour class have physics and solid geometry in the two periods after her class. In other words, scheduling in this medium-sized high school has caused college preparatory students to fall into the second-hour English class. Students in the fourth-hour class, she discovers, are for the most part young men and women who are not preparing to go to college.

The visit with Inger leads to a three-way conference with Jack. Jane reports that her analysis of information in the guidance office suggests that most students in the fourth-hour class are unable to read at the level required for the assigned literature, and she hypothesizes that lack of reading competence is probably the main reason for uncompleted assignments and poor discussions.

Together Jane, Jack, and Inger work on a plan of attack. Jack and Inger know that Jane is an excellent reader. It is agreed that Jane will read aloud some stories from the 12th-grade literature book that might be of interest to the fourth-hour class. Some easier reading material at the 12th-grade interest level is selected for an assignment. Jane proposes that she work with the librarian to find additional books and stories that are suited to the maturity level of high school seniors but require less than 12th-grade reading ability.

When this plan goes into action, there is a noticeable change in interest and attitude in the fourth-hour class. Although unable to read some selections, students find enjoyment in literature from Jane's reading. Discussion of characters, plot, mood, and other aspects of stories becomes animated. Individuals start to open up and tell about stories and books they are reading. An attitude of wanting to read begins to develop.

The kind of inservice education represented by this illustration needs to be recognized as a valid approach and developed in schools so that teachers think of it as a possibility, and it needs to be supported by staff who have the skills and knowledge to assist teachers in inservice study of this type.

## Illustration #2

Ivan is a fifth-grade teacher. He is shy and rather quiet, but alert to what children in his class are doing. He is a new teacher who comes to his position with very positive evaluations from his student teaching. In this time of job shortages he has been unusually fortunate to have had two job offers. He has taken this position because he knows the school has advisors and counselors for teachers—people who are selected from the teaching ranks for one-year periods out of the classroom, who have demonstrated outstanding teaching ability, and who have already taken initiative in their own schools to help colleagues analyze teaching. In some schools they have been pod coordinators in open-concept programs.

During the interviews for the job Ivan discussed the role of advisors and counselors with Laurie Cadwell and struck a bargain with her. Ivan admitted that he expected his first year of teaching to be a challenge. He could probably handle it himself, he explained to Laurie, but he would rather work closely with her in an induction phase of teaching. All of the people in Ivan's administrative hierarchy agreed to this arrangement. They felt secure because they knew of the promise Ivan had demonstrated in student teaching; they had viewed videotapes that had been part of his placement credentials; and they had been impressed with this young man in his interview.

So when Ivan begins working with his fifth-grade class, there are already some arrangements made for inservice help, and a degree of rapport has been established with Laurie and the school principal. Laurie becomes a frequent visitor to Ivan's class. She is immediately struck by Ivan's relationship with the children and his apparent poise. Shy though he is, he feels free enough to admit some nervousness and considerable apprehension about meeting the needs of every child.

Ivan first comes to Laurie for help with the teaching of arithmetic. He and Laurie have agreed earlier that when possible, Ivan should identify a problem, collect what evidence he can, and pose questions for discussion before calling on Laurie. When he meets with Laurie, he reports

that every time he explains a new concept and then assigns problems, some children finish the assignment very quickly while others ponder problems and still others do not seem to understand the fundamental process involved. He has tried to give individual help to some of the students who are having difficulty, but there apparently is a fairly wide range of ability and achievement, and he does not know what else to do. Obviously he is neglecting the students who can manage the work—perhaps even holding back their progress—and time spent with the struggling students seems increasingly to show that they cannot manage the work he is expecting the rest of the class to do.

Laurie asks if having the same expectations for each student in the class is realistic. She also inquires whether Ivan has thought about ways of discovering how much understanding of arithmetic processes the children have achieved.

Ivan and Laurie agree that she will teach cooperatively with him in several areas other than arithmetic and then gradually handle about three mornings a week for about four or five weeks while Ivan studies, analyzes, and plans remedies for his teaching problems in arithmetic.

Ivan uses a number of resources in his study of the teaching of arithmetic—the central office math consultant, the curriculum materials center, the teachers in other schools to whom he has been referred by Laurie. He does more than study, however. Daily he devises new strategies and techniques—and in the process gets Laurie's critique of how his altered goals and approaches are working. He tries grouping some of the class into sections while some individuals work alone. He involves youngsters in identifying what they know and how well they know it and in determining what help they need. He experiments with ways to make computation a part of other areas of the curriculum. The free time enables Ivan to keep a journal and gather other data on how his purposes are working. He also collects specimens of work and other information that provide evidence of student achievement and attitudes. On a longer-range basis he takes note of evidence that will enable him to check on the durability of learning over time. He experiments with having students help each other, giving particular attention to how well learning is set with children who are asked to explain a newly learned concept or skill to another youngster, and children who are not.

I could go further with this illustration to catalog more precisely what has been accomplished, but what I have outlined is enough to suggest the possibilities.

The approach in both illustrations is quite similar although the first case deals with a fairly seasoned teacher, and the second with a beginner. Where does this approach lead? Obviously it is connected with teacher competence, but it is not much related to college credits, salary increments, and other usual rewards. It is strong in self-satisfaction and should reward the teacher with greater self-knowledge and a better self-concept.

It could also lead to gradual definition of the multiple roles that teachers must assume, and take the emphasis off the singular role of the teacher as an instructor of students. In my illustrations I have given some prominence to the role of the teacher as an individual professional, a person who takes continuous responsibility for analyzing and improving his or her professional knowledge and behavior. The illustrations also attend to the role of the teacher in the hierarchy of the school and should begin to clarify what skills are needed in working with both subordinates and superordinates. Although the teachers in the illustrations did not interact with the community, the teacher's role as liaison with parents and the community can also be developed by working with teachers individually.

## Inservice Education with Groups of Teachers

A basic premise in considering both teachers in small groups and an entire faculty is that the building faculty is usually the largest viable group for inservice education when the purpose is to improve school program.

Let me briefly suggest just four possible activities for groups of teachers in a school who engage in inservice education:

1. Teachers representing history, art, music, and literature convene to voice their dissatisfaction with the tunnel approach of each of their courses. They recognize that students get separate and isolated views of each of their subjects and little if any understanding of how art, music, and literature reflect economic, political, social, and military developments, the usual substance of history courses. They also discover that most students never get a complete range of music, art, and literature courses to relate to the traditional and ubiquitous history course. They decide that what is included in history courses is indeed only part of the

history of people and that something should be done to help high school students become more cognizant of their heritage—in a comprehensive way.

In their study the teachers all learn much about history themselves because although they know the history of their own subjects, they know comparatively little about history in related areas. For example, the music teacher might have real difficulty recalling artists who were contemporaries of certain composers.

What evolves, of course, is an integrated course in history, team teaching, rescheduling of time, and the development of integrated materials—all of which require extensive study and entail reorientation of this group of faculty and their colleagues. Resources and specialists in the school and at nearby institutions of higher education are used as needed.

2. The faculty of a single department, science, decides to review the science curriculum because once again courses in science seem to have settled into a routine. Many students seem bored. Science teaching seems to have little application to the lives of students, and teachers admit they are getting stale. Science curriculums developed with National Science Foundation money seem only to have changed some content and terminology for the teachers in this school. Something more vital is needed—something that relates to concerns about energy, pollution, drugs, genetics, etc. You can imagine what could emerge from such discontent—provided it is capitalized on intelligently and sensitively.

3. Another group of teachers becomes concerned about role expectations. The teachers voice dissatisfaction about being treated only as teachers of students and as lunchroom monitors. They complain about being so isolated from their colleagues. They note that their freedom in the classroom seems contingent on staying out of decision-making roles at the building level; that is, there seems to be a tacit agreement between the principal and the teachers that each will keep off the other's turf.

A social—and educational—consciousness develops in discussion. Teachers recognize that they are part of an integral whole—they all contribute to the education that students get in their school. But that contribution is left largely to whatever synthesis the student makes for himself or herself; it is not nurtured and coordinated by deliberate faculty action.

Again, I will not detail how this scenario gets played out—but obviously a faculty group has identified some dissatisfactions, and if the per-

sonnel and attitude are present to move such dissatisfaction into productive channels, there can be improvement through collective activity (study, planning, trial, evaluation) by the teachers in a school.

4. Some other teachers have a common feeling that they are in a rut. They are not very sure what the problems or dissatisfactions are, but there is a common intuition that things are not going well. Teaching is not exciting enough anymore. They no longer have the zest to probe new ideas or make better sense out of old ideas. The *deja vu* syndrome seems to have taken over. Someone suggests a blue-skying session with no holds barred to see if ideas can be generated to break the stalemate.

Imagine what might happen to regenerate and renew such a group of staff people—provided they get some support and have access to some resource people who respond to their problem.

## Inservice Education with an Entire Faculty

Engaging an entire faculty in inservice education on a voluntary basis probably does not happen easily in a school where most people have operated largely as individuals or members of small groups or departments. There is not much tradition for building a faculty as a team. The subject-centered curriculum, the size of many schools, the self-contained classroom, and teacher education contribute little to a conception of a group of teachers in the same building as a coordinated team. Teachers are, as yet, viewed as individual entrepreneurs.

The notion of inservice education for entire faculties, then, has to proceed slowly. Teachers will gradually need to consider what being a member of a faculty means. For many it brings a new teacher role into consciousness. If the notion of faculty—a group of professionals with a common commitment to operate an agreed-on school program for the students who attend—finds acceptance, there is the possibility of some exciting developments in school improvement—and in the professionalization of teaching. Such a notion ultimately influences the way teachers operate in a school, how they work together and apart, how they complement and supplement each other's activity, how student growth and learning are planned, facilitated, and evaluated. In sum, it influences the definition of teaching.

The very process of examining the notion of faculty is an inservice education activity.

But there may be easier ways to begin. Any school preparing for an accreditation visit can engage in a total faculty activity. Such an occasion can be much more than merely documenting the quantity and quality of school programs and faculty.

Many schools have faculty retreats and inservice education days. Although most such activities are not planned to build a highly sophisticated notion of faculty, they could be.

There are ideas for faculty-building in *Teacher-Designed Reform in Inservice Education* (Edelfelt & Johnson, 1977)—and incidentally some candid admissions about failures and shortcomings.

Any faculty today faced with decrees for behavioral objectives, performance-based education, criterion-referenced testing, needs assessment, or minimum competence standards could turn the activity of addressing those tasks into faculty-building. In the process it might be possible to make less mechanical, more humane procedures out of accountability mandates.

Faculty development may result in some data on optimal size of a working faculty—both what is too large a group and what is too small. Inevitably it will tease out some new notions about teacher roles.

Let me reiterate a few ideas in summary.

1. We need more illustrations of what inservice education might be like with a focus other than courses or workshops.
2. We should dwell on dissatisfactions that teachers express and seek ways to remedy or reduce their dissatisfactions, but there is value in seeking multiple perceptions of problems and dissatisfactions—from students, administrators, parents, and others.
3. The inservice education that is addressed here is primarily directed at curriculum and instructional improvement.
4. It happens largely on school time.
5. It is operated at the expense of the school.
6. Skilled support personnel (teachers, advisors, counselors) are available to facilitate analysis, study, and operational improvement.

## References

Edelfelt, Roy A., & Johnson, Margo. *Teacher-designed reform in inservice education.* Washington, D.C.: National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, 1977.

## Chapter Two

# Demonstrating Collaborative Governance

William H. Drummond

This chapter is divided into five parts: an introduction; a response to the question, What does the term "governance" mean?; an answer to the question, How does governance relate to collaboration?; my thoughts on the question, What does the word "demonstration" mean?; and an attempt to answer the question, What criteria might be applied to projects demonstrating collaboration?

## Introduction

Discussing collaboration causes me to identify with a giant in *The Phantom Tollbooth:*

> Alec raced ahead, laughing and shouting, but soon encountered serious difficulties; for, while he could always see the tree behind the next one, he could never see the next one itself and was continually crashing into it. After several minutes of wildly dashing about, they all stopped for a breath of air.
>
> "I think we're lost," panted the Humbug, collapsing into a large berrybush.
>
> "Nonsense!" shouted Alec from the nigh branch on which he sat.
>
> "Do you know where we are?" asked Milo.
>
> "Certainly," he replied, "we're right here on this very spot. Besides, being lost is never a matter of not knowing where you are; it's a matter of not knowing where you aren't—and I don't care at all about where I'm not."
>
> This was much too complicated for the bug to figure out, and Milo had just begun repeating it to himself when Alec said, "If you don't believe me, ask the giant," and he pointed to a small house tucked neatly between two of the largest trees.
>
> Milo and Tock walked up to the door, whose brass name plate read simply "THE GIANT," and knocked.

"Good afternoon," said the perfectly ordinary-sized man who answered the door.

"Are you the giant?" asked Tock doubtfully.

"To be sure," he replied proudly. "I'm the smallest giant in the world. What can I do for you?"

"Are we lost?" said Milo.

"That's a difficult question," said the giant. "Why don't you go around back and ask the midget?" and he closed the door.

They walked to the rear of the house, which looked exactly like the front, and knocked at the door, whose name plate read "THE MIDGET."

"How are you?" inquired the man, who looked exactly like the giant.

"Are you the midget?" asked Tock again, with a hint of uncertainty in his voice.

"Unquestionably," he answered. "I'm the tallest midget in the world. May I help you?"

"Do you think we're lost?" repeated Milo.

"That's a very complicated problem," he said. "Why don't you go around to the side and ask the fat man?" and he, too, quickly disappeared.

This side of the house looked very like the front and back, and the door flew open the very instant they knocked.

"How nice of you to come by," exclaimed the man, who could have been the midget's twin brother.

"You must be the fat man," said Tock, learning not to count too much on appearance.

"The thinnest one in the world," he replied brightly; "but if you have any questions, I suggest you try the thin man, on the other side of the house."

Just as they suspected, the other side of the house looked the same as the front, the back, and the side, and the door was again answered by a man who looked precisely like the other three.

"What a pleasant surprise!" he cried happily. "I haven't had a visitor in as long as I can remember."

"How long is that?" asked Milo.

"I'm sure I don't know," he replied. "Now pardon me; I have to answer the door."

"But you just did," said Tock.

"Oh yes, I'd forgotten."

"Are you the fattest thin man in the world?" asked Tock.

"Do you know one that's fatter?" he asked impatiently.

"I think you're all the same man," said Milo emphatically.

"S-S-S-S-H-H-H-H-H-," he cautioned, putting his finger up to his lips and drawing Milo closer. "Do you want to ruin everything? You see, to tall men I'm a midget, and to short men I'm a giant; to the skinny ones I'm a fat

man, and to the fat ones I'm a thin man. That way I can hold four jobs at once. As you can see, though, I'm neither tall nor short nor fat nor thin. In fact, I'm quite ordinary, but there are so many ordinary men that no one asks their opinion about anything. Now what is your question?"

"Are we lost?" asked Milo once again.

"H-h-m-m-m," said the man, scratching his head. "I haven't had such a difficult question in as long as I can remember. Would you mind repeating it? It's slipped my mind."

Milo asked the question for the fifth time.

"My, my," the man mumbled. "I know one thing for certain; it's much harder to tell whether you ARE lost than whether you WERE lost, for, on many occasions, where you're going is exactly where you are. On the other hand, you often find that where you've been is not at all where you should have gone, and, since it's much more difficult to find your way back from someplace you've never left, I suggest you go there immediately and then decide. If you have any more questions, please ask the giant." And he slammed his door and pulled down the shade. (pp. 109-114)

---

From *The Phantom Tollbooth* by Norton Juster. Copyright © 1961 by Norton Juster. Reprinted by permission of Random House, Inc.

## What Does the Term "Governance" Mean?

To govern means to exercise authority, direction, and control over (paraphrased from Webster's, 1974, p. 497). Of self-government, Mann (1977) wrote:

> In democratic societies people have a general expectation about self-government. They expect to be able to take part in decisions about public matters that affect them. Most of the time, it is enough that they are consulted or that decisions reflect some part of what they would like to see happen . . . Sometimes they seek to control . . . The higher the stakes, the more likely it is that more people will seek control. The ways through which people seek control over significant issues can be important to the outcome. We can approach the analysis of participation, representation, and control by asking which is more important to the individual. Would one rather be able to participate in a decision, to be represented in a decision, or to control a decision? Control is clearly preferable. . . . (p. 67)

At present, there are some interesting issues related to governance and control. For example:

- Who should govern the admission, preparation, and certification of people coming into the teaching profession?
- Who should decide how resources are allocated for curriculum and instruction?

- Should the press for educational accountability be viewed as a legitimate part of the consumer movement in America?

According to Iannaccone (1977), some of these educational issues are unresolvable because they are manifestations of more basic unresolved problems in American society, namely: conflict "between elite and egalitarian educational goals"—for example, what I want for my children versus what I want for all children; conflict "between the few and the many in government"; and conflict "between the power of professionals and lay citizens over educational decisions" (p. 277).

The politicizing of the poor and the politicizing of the teaching profession are causing major shifts in both who is involved in the making of decisions and how the decisions are being made. Whenever there are shifts in power, those who are gaining power feel that their gaining it is right, proper, and long overdue; those who are losing power feel like "the world is going to the dogs." In teacher education, particularly inservice education, teachers certainly want parity of power in, if not control of, decision-making.

## How Does Governance Relate to Collaboration?

The ideas of William C. Schutz (1958) are especially sensible in explaining how governance and the resolution of governance issues relate to group morale. Oversimplified, Schutz's theory is that groups typically go through a series of stages as they become more effective and stronger, and they reverse these stages as they become less effective and weaker, eventually disbanding. The stages are:

Stage 1—*Purpose or reasons:* Why get involved in a group?

Stage 2—*Inclusion or membership:* Who is in the group and who is not?

Stage 3—*Payoff:* What's in the group for me? What are the others getting?

Stage 4—*Control or governance:* Who is in charge? Will my interests be protected?

Stage 5—*Task accomplishment:* What have we done? What are the results?

Stage 6—*Appreciation:* When we did what we've did, what were the consequences? Why did it work?

Stage 7—*Affection:* Is our work together enjoyable and worthwhile?

If Schutz's theoretical sequence of stages of group growth is correct, some kind of governance normally precedes task accomplishment, and

for many people, task accomplishment precedes an appreciation of the value of collaboration. It is important to notice too that as group activities become more successful and as communication becomes more informal, easy, and caring (transcending previous organizational boundaries), collaborative activity continues to improve. Schutz's theory reinforces the idea that organizations do not just happen; people have to care about them and devote time and energy to sustain them.

## What Does the Word "Demonstration" Mean?

Under the word "demonstration," Webster's dictionary (1974) says: "an act, process, or means of demonstrating to the intelligence: as: conclusive evidence: proof" (p. 302). The question, then, is, What evidence can be provided that collaboration is actually occurring? What products should be produced? How shall processes be described?

To get more insight into the meaning of demonstration, I interviewed Florida's director of projects conducted under Title IV, Section C, of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. I asked this question: When a project becomes a demonstration site, what do you expect of it? He replied:

- The project must have a program in operation. There must be people actually engaged in some activity that can be observed, using materials or methods, or taking action, that can be replicated. In other words, other people not of the site can see it—whatever it is—happening. Visitors can discriminate between instances when it is being demonstrated and instances when it is not.
- The project staff must have developed adequate descriptions of what is being demonstrated.
- The project staff must alert potential consumers to the availability of the validated program or product.
- The project staff must carry out a series of demonstrations for nonsite people.
- The project staff must be able to provide training to others who wish to try out the demonstrated product or process.
- The project staff must be able to provide technical assistance to consumers trying out the demonstrated product or process.
- The project staff must determine the generalizability of the product or process. That is, when does it work? When does it not work?
- The project staff must maintain a supply of "consumables" so that early adopters can try out ideas with a minimum of logistical problems.

I also went to the recent literature on the diffusion of ideas, processes, and products. The literature seemed to indicate that individuals go through certain psychological phases in deciding whether or not to adopt a new idea. The phases are:

Phase 1—*Awareness:* becoming aware that a new idea, product, or process exists;

Phase 2—*Interest:* developing a curiosity about how the new idea, product, or process works and what its benefits may be;

Phase 3—*Appraisal:* mentally evaluating the pros and cons of the new idea, product, or process for one's own situation—how would it work for me?

Phase 4—*Trial:* trying out the new idea, product, or process on a small scale;

Phase 5—*Adoption:* deciding to make continued use of the new idea, product, or process.

The literature seemed to suggest that people can be encouraged to move from phase to phase but they should not be rushed or greater resistance is developed. There are, however, a number of strategies that may be used to encourage people to move from one phase to the next. For example, talking to people, making presentations, and making site visits are good strategies for developing interest.

From the literature on diffusion one can conclude that the act of demonstrating is a powerful strategy for moving people along toward adoption of an idea, product, or process if the people observing the demonstration already have an interest in that idea, product, or process. This is especially true if the demonstration is conducted by people of influence and integrity. Demonstration is not a good strategy for developing interest.

In sum, the demonstration of collaboration or collaborative governance puts some obligations on the demonstrators: knowing what they are doing when they are collaborating, being able to describe what they are doing, showing results, training others, etc. But demonstrators should remember that their demonstration efforts probably will be noticed only by those who have an interest in collaboration.

## What Criteria Might Be Applied to Projects Demonstrating Collaboration?

Five general criteria make sense to me. I will present each in both question and statement format:

- What does the project propose to demonstrate?

The project staff has a clear idea of what collaboration or collaborative governance means.

- Why is collaboration being demonstrated?

The project staff and the leaders of the agencies involved have agreed openly on the purposes of the collaboration.

- Whom is the demonstration for?

The project staff and the agencies involved have identified the potential consumers of the project's ideas, products, and processes related to collaboration.

- Do the potential consumers have an interest in the ideas, products, and processes to be demonstrated?

The project staff provides evidence that the potential consumers have an awareness of and an interest in collaboration.

- How will the stages of group development and the tasks of demonstration be monitored?

A policy board broadly representative of those who have a stake in inservice education monitors project development and achievements.

Some people spend a lot of time abstracting from their experiences and from the abstractions of others, and they often wind up thinking that abstractions from reality are more important and more real than reality itself. We can be abstract about demonstration and collaboration, but we know too that both demonstration and collaboration have to be done on site, with the norms, expectations, and values found there. Reality starts where you are. From there, fantasy, speculation, and abstraction can be helpful in developing better projects.

## References

Iannaccone, Laurence. Three views of change. In Jay D. Scribner (Ed.), *The politics of education*. 76th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 2. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977. Pp. 255-286.

Juster, Norton. *The phantom tollbooth*. New York: Random House, 1961.

Mann, Dale. Participation, representation, and control. In Jay D. Scribner (Ed.), *The politics of education*. 76th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 2. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977. Pp. 67-93.

Schutz, William C. *FIRO-B: A three-dimensional theory of behavior*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, 1958.

*Webster's new collegiate dictionary*. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1974.

## Chapter Three

# Evaluating Inservice Education

Kenneth R. Howey

Evaluation in the context of this chapter is broadly defined as the various activities engaged in while collecting, interpreting, and sharing information designed to assist in making decisions about inservice education. A well-designed program of evaluation will focus on a spectrum of activities. One can, for example, examine decisions and decision-making related to inservice education, the general conditions enveloping the actual inservice education, what happens during inservice education itself, and, of course, the bottom line—the effects of the inservice education on instructional practice.

Several assumptions guide the discussion of evaluation that is presented in this chapter:

- Various role groups and conditions share in determining relative success or failure in meeting inservice education goals. There has too often been an unreasonable onus placed on the typical recipient of inservice education—the classroom teacher. Who decides what should be done, when and where it is done, who provides it, how it is provided, and the classroom condition to which the teacher returns—all obviously affect the success of inservice education to some degree.
- Inservice education may significantly change teachers' or other participants' performance and yet be judged as undesirable from a broader perspective. Perceived importance of the activity to the district or community, cost in terms of time and dollars, and consonance of the program's goals with personal-professional values and ethics are just some of the factors that can preempt desired impact.
- Just as inservice education is a shared responsibility, so is the monitoring and evaluation of it. Multiple perceptions ensure the validity of any information collected and of subsequent judgments. Data collection is an academic exercise at best—and more likely a negative influence—if the data are not acted on. Effective evaluation demands two basic types of reciprocity. First, something must be given back to those involved for what is taken away in time and data (ideally, in a humane, accurate, and expeditious manner). Second, if the data suggest needed change, then those involved, whether in governance, administration, delivery, or im-

plementation, must examine the implications for themselves and act on the implications accordingly.

A fundamental concern in the evaluation of inservice education is what is the most appropriate goal at any given time. Such a determination can only be made by being sensitive to the range of legitimate needs and interests that exist in any situation and being aware of how these different needs have been responded to at different times in the past. A coherent design for inservice education must have an accurate perspective of what teachers have done and been asked to do over time.

Goals for inservice education are generated from a number of sources. Often these goals have different but defensible rationales. For example, individual teachers have job-specific goals—needs and interests directly related to their assignments. They also have the general professional goal of keeping on the cutting edge of knowledge in their area of specialization. For many teachers expansion of their professional responsibility—a career-development goal—is the best use of their talents at a given time. Self-confrontation and analysis, meditation and introspection, exploration into new dimensions of art, music, and literature are but a few of the avenues to another goal—the personal enrichment that is so essential to the mental health and vitality of teachers.

These, then, are departure points from which individual teachers perceive different priorities for themselves in inservice education. Obviously there are also conditions outside their immediate purview that determine priorities. Within a school new organizational designs such as team teaching or curriculum innovations that cut across grade levels or departments make demands on the teacher. Frequently the district establishes priorities in terms of K-6 or K-12 alterations and related inservice education. A variety of special-interest groups, the courts, and the legislatures at various levels also confront the public schools with desired change and concomitant inservice education.

What is needed, then, is not only a comprehensive agenda for inservice education, but also one that strikes a reasonable balance between different social and institutional goals and various personal needs and interests.

A recent national survey of inservice practices and problems (Joyce, McNair, Diaz, McKibbin, Waterman, and Baker, 1976) validated a common generalization that there is deep dissatisfaction with present inservice education practices—dissatisfaction shared by all parties involved in the enterprise. However, it is inaccurate to assume that the

perceived inadequacy of present practice can be primarily attributed to an inadequacy among inservice trainers, especially those in higher education. This defense is not offered simply because I am employed by a university. On the basis of rather extensive first-hand involvement in inservice education over the last 15 years and observation of many inservice practices across the nation, my perception is that talent, commitment, and understanding of inservice education problems vary among professors about as much as they do among teachers. This is not to say that teacher educators in general and specifically those in higher education are not in need of fundamental improvement—they are. The point is that there is a larger set of related factors that must be addressed or even the most capable inservice education instructors and committed teachers will realize only limited success in this phase of teacher education.

As stated at the outset, we too often fail to offer an integrated and balanced inservice agenda in terms of different goals and content. For example, the current emphasis on individual needs assessment and teacher centers tends to overlook the importance of curriculum. A decade ago the emphasis on institutional reform via curriculum implementation tended to overlook the importance of the teacher. We tend to become routinized and patterned in the content, design, and delivery of inservice education. As an example, a typical response by many when asked to define inservice education is, "It's the after-school workshop or college-credit course." Those concerned with the evaluation of inservice education would do well to look at the diversity and balance in content, design, and delivery. There are multiple dimensions against which these two criteria—diversity and balance—can be applied, as follows:

How often is inservice education designed to accommodate a unique personal interest, and how often does it call for and enhance collegial cooperation and broader programmatic reform?

personal _____ collegial

How often does inservice education employ teachers in the specific school setting who have the best insights into certain problems or interests, and how often does it bring in persons with alternative perspectives from the outside?

internal perspective _____ external perspective

How often does inservice education focus on refining and enriching familiar concepts, and how often does it confront participants with new ideas, materials, and approaches?

refinement _____ exploration

How often is inservice education primarily curriculum based (reading, history, career education), and how often is it primarily focused on improving general teaching skills (interpersonal processes or cognitive strategies)?

curriculum oriented _____ instruction oriented

How often does inservice education allow teachers to grapple with and advance the conceptual and theoretical foundations of a critical dimension of their responsibility, such as adolescent growth and development, and how often are specifically targeted hands-on materials and techniques the focus?

theoretical _____ methodological

How often does inservice education focus on what the teacher does when interacting with students, and how often does it address the several other roles of the teacher—professional, community member, colleague, contributor to the initial preparation of other teachers, scholar . . . ?

interactive _____ transactive

How often does inservice education encourage teachers to share, and how often are teachers basically recipients?

sharing _____ receiving

How often are teachers in a passive, reflective role, and how often are they in an active role?

passive _____ active

How often does inservice education address teachers alone, and how often does it address all relevant role groups—administrators, support personnel, aides, custodial-clerical personnel, students, parents, and community?

single-role focus _____ multiple-role focus

How often does inservice education take place during the instructional day, and how often is it programmed after school, on weekends, or during summer recess?

integrated into instructional day _____ separate activity

How often is inservice education programmed as a single activity such as a special workshop or an intensive two-day to two-week experience, and how often is it an intermittent activity with on-the-job follow-through over a period of weeks, months, or even years?

intensive _____ developmental

How often is inservice education conducted on-site to accommodate the specific environmental conditions of a classroom, school, or school community, and how often is it off-site to allow the teacher to observe and experience another setting (study days, brief internships), or to provide the technical and reference facilities of a campus and the reflection and cross-fertilization enhanced in this context?

on-site _____ off-site

When inservice education is on-site, how often is it role embedded—for example, inservice strategies that maximize formal observation and feed-

back among colleagues about their teaching behavior—and how often is it an activity separate and apart from actual teaching?

role embedded _____ job related

How often is inservice education designed to enrich and enhance the reservoir of knowledge, skills, and experience a teacher will bring to bear in countless ways in the course of a career, and how often is it designed to have a more defined, immediate and measurable impact on what transpires in the classroom?

general professional growth _____ specific application

How often is inservice education basically additive in terms of expanding the teacher's repertoire of knowledge and skills, and how often does it concentrate on reducing and eliminating certain practices and behaviors or fears and anxieties that militate against effectiveness?

additive _____ analytic

How often does inservice education allow a serious reexamination of values and attitudes, and how often is it designed to reinforce certain principles?

reexamination _____ commitment

The questions above are guidelines for looking comprehensively at different needs and interests in inservice education and reviewing the diverse means available for accommodating these needs and interests. There is no shortage of good ideas or effective approaches to inservice education. However, there remains a real problem in bringing the richness and diversity that does exist into more coherent schemes.

The essence of inservice education—perhaps better called continuing professional development—will obviously not be realized in the occasional after-school workshop or by providing a few new techniques for a "technologist." Colleges and universities cannot continue to offer comfortable courses to attract the experienced teacher, nor can teachers continue to take such courses for easy credits. Although we must better understand and respect the role of the teacher, the prevalent practice of simpleminded needs assessment followed by inappropriate on-site activities falls far short of what is needed. It is time to move more aggressively beyond trinket incentives, passive performance, and individual entrepreneurship.

Continuing professional development will be enhanced when serious attention is given to such bedrock motivational factors as more genuine recognition of teachers' efforts, greater opportunity for career diversity and mobility, conditions in schools that allow for behavior more consonant with one's convictions and abilities, and a more civilized and comfortable workstyle. Additionally continuing professional develop-

ment must be more embedded in the daily course of events. To realize a desired measure of competency—or more accurately, to achieve a sense of excellence in what we do—may well be the most powerful incentive for continued learning. What one does as a teacher in a school should be both more public and more cooperative. Both colleagues and students should contribute to and share in one's growth. There should be a climate in which implicit acknowledgment of one's effort by peers enhances professional self-respect. Continuing interchange and dialogue between teachers with diverse but complementary abilities seems to be a rather foreign concept of inservice education, yet it has vast potential. To realize such a concept calls for a major rethinking of how collegial relationships within a school can be nurtured and how the vast and diverse support personnel now basically external to the school can be better integrated into regular school activities.

This is not to suggest that everyone be on-site. The theme of this chapter is balance and diversity. Many if not most colleges cannot effectively spend their limited resources on the resident type of approaches to inservice education, and they should not delude themselves that they are responsive and responsible when they do so. However, with the help of their colleagues in the schools, they can design programs to prepare more sophisticated and diverse resident support personnel for inservice education than are now in evidence. The British advisor model, variations on the organizational development model, and clinical supervision models are just some of the prototypes for resident inservice education instructors and coordinators that need further testing. The problem is not always one of limited resources. Often it is one of limited conceptualization of what might be accomplished by reassigning and retraining existing support personnel. The ultimate question of an evaluative nature is, Have you advanced the concept of inservice education so that when the project terminates, there remains a more comprehensive and coherent design for inservice education, and not merely the memory of a series of responses to personal needs?

## References

Joyce, Bruce R., McNair, Kathleen M., Diaz, Richard, McKibbin, Michael D., Waterman, Floyd T., & Baker, Michael G. *Interviews: Perceptions of professionals and policy makers*. Inservice Teacher Education Concepts Project, Report No. 2. Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1976.

## Chapter Four

# Variables Impacting on the Implementation of Inservice Education Programs

Charles J. Santelli

This chapter addresses two separate but related items in inservice education: problems related to the implementation of local projects and problems facing demonstration of local projects.

Five years ago people who were interested in inservice education had to search the literature very carefully to find even a mention of it. Entire articles that addressed inservice education were more difficult to find, and journals devoting the majority of their space to articles on inservice education were indeed a rarity.

Within the past five years there has been an upsurge of interest in inservice education. Three major variables have been given credit for the upsurge:

- The teaching force has become more stable as a result of a decline in public school enrollments. The "revolving professional door," through which hundreds of thousands of teachers each year have sought other occupations inside or outside education, has been closed. The jobs that many teachers equate with the achievement of upward mobility—for example, counselor, administrator, supervisor, and college teacher—have become in short supply. One illustration of the impact of this phenomenon is that in New York state the average number of years of teaching experience almost doubled between 1970 and 1975 (from five to nine years). The result has been a movement on the part of policy makers and others to recommend continual retraining "to keep teachers current." Their reasoning is: During the time of rapid turnover, new blood in teaching meant new ideas; currently there is no new blood, so there are no new ideas or techniques; therefore, inservice education is a necessity.
- The decrease in public school enrollments has made finding a teaching job extremely difficult for recent graduates in most parts of our nation. College and university personnel, mindful of the direct relationship between public school enrollments and the continuation of their programs—

indeed, their jobs—have sought ways to ensure adequate enrollments in teacher education. Their rationale is: In the past, fulfillment of their major responsibility, which is to provide the nation with enough qualified teachers, consumed so much of their resources that little attention was devoted to inservice education; the need for undergraduate programs has now diminished, so they can turn their attention to improving those currently teaching in the schools of our nation; therefore, there is a resource available for providing inservice education.

- The dawn of collective bargaining for public-sector employees has breathed new life into teacher organizations and increased teacher involvement in legislation and political action. As teachers have developed and refined their newly acquired power, they have quickly begun to shed the image of the traditional doting schoolmaster, Ichabod Crane, and the stereotypes of more recent vintage, *Our Miss Brooks* and *Mr. Peepers*. (A comparison of the images portrayed by Brooks and Peepers with the modern-day images of teachers in *Lucas Tanner*, *Room 222*, and *Welcome Back, Kotter* illustrates this metamorphosis.) Teacher organizations reason as follows: Improvement in our educational system depends on the terms and conditions under which the professionals teach in our schools; activities that are desired by teachers should be achieved by teacher organizations through negotiations and/or legislation; most needs assessments conducted by teacher organizations reveal that teachers rate professional development as a high priority; therefore, collective-bargaining contracts should provide for inservice education based on teachers' needs.

There have been many workshops, papers, articles, journals, and conferences devoted to inservice education. Federal agencies are allocating time and money to inservice education. The Multi-State Consortium, which paralleled the life cycle of competency-based teacher education, seems to have been reincarnated as the National Council of States on Inservice Education. The March-April 1977 issue of the *Journal of Teacher Education* was devoted to inservice education, and *Phi Delta Kappan* usually has a couple of articles on inservice education each month.

Inservice education is on the move—but in what direction? Consider the following observations on the state of the art:

- Most states have not even attempted to define inservice education for their educational systems.
- In the states that have attempted to define it, the definition has not met with universal acclaim.
- Most inservice education projects described in the journals deal with 50 teachers or less.
- Most articles in national journals and most speeches at national confer-

ences are by necessity sufficiently abstract to fall into the following categories:

**cheerleader pronouncements** that encourage people to do something—and often encourage them to do anything because anything seems better than nothing;

**status quo pronouncements** that illustrate how we already do much of what people say should be done;

**structural pronouncements** that claim that we have only to reorder our priorities and reassign staff in order to implement inservice education;

**collaboration pronouncements** that claim that everything will be fine if only we could collaborate or that everything will fall apart if collaboration is forced on us;

**show-and-tell pronouncements** that detail an "exceptional" inservice program for 10 teachers or less on a subject of limited appeal and applicability, offered at a time that happened to coincide with a free period;

**doom-and-gloom pronouncements** that detail the problems facing well-intentioned advocates of inservice education.

This chapter could fall into all of those categories, but it falls mainly into the doom-and-gloom category, not because I believe that inservice education cannot be effective, but because there are many problems that must be solved before teachers can buy into the process. The following list is not all-inclusive or prioritized:

1. *What is inservice education?* The only definitions with which people agree are so broad that they are virtually useless. Reduced to their lowest common denominator, the definitions seem to indicate that inservice education is anything that teachers or others are engaged in that seems to make sense. Such definitions may be viable, but if the broadest definition were adopted, we should concentrate strictly on the administration of inservice education because the process and content would be as variable as change itself and as comprehensive as the universe.

2. *Who should be the targets of inservice education?* Some people want to include only teachers; others advocate inservice education for cafeteria workers, aides, monitors, custodians, school board members, and parents. The real issue is, How do we encourage participation by the veteran teacher who is turned off by inservice education? Forcing inservice education on teachers would be tantamount to the Crusades.

3. *Who should be involved in the governance of inservice education?* Most people mention teachers and administrators in responding to this question. Others include higher education personnel, school board members, parents, and state education department experts. Who should

be involved is one of the most difficult issues to resolve. The new teacher center legislation mandates that a majority of the members of the policy boards be teachers. That mandate will not in itself guarantee the success of a project. The only way collaboration works is by involving people who want to make it work.

4. *How will inservice education be funded?* Funding of inservice education is a very difficult problem to solve because of shrinking finances for educational purposes. Funding of inservice education must be viewed in the context of our economy. It would be very difficult to begin an inservice education program in a district that was retrenching on staff; the funds to be spent on inservice education could be used instead to hire back staff. It would also be difficult to implement an inservice education program in a district that had eliminated some educational programs from its budget; one could well imagine the reaction of parents to the establishment of an inservice program in a district that had eliminated foreign languages, music, art, remedial reading, bus transportation, or interscholastic activities. (A tangential note: Cutting programs in schools falls hardest on children from poorer families; wealthier families can afford private music lessons, summer camp, etc., for their children.)

5. *Should there be rewards for participation in inservice education?* Some people advocate a system of inservice education financed by the employer; others want to make inservice education the individual teacher's professional responsibility. Some people want school districts to pay for inservice education programs; others want the state to pay. Some people want to take the money currently paid to teachers for graduate education and rechannel it into inservice education; others feel that such a practice would ultimately destroy inservice education.

What does all of this mean for implementing inservice education demonstration projects? It means that there will be many obstacles—many non-believers and many negative attitudes.

- If a project simply invites participation, it will probably be a small-scale operation mostly attracting teachers who need the credit for certification.
- If a project mandates participation, most teachers will have a negative attitude toward it.
- If a project is conducted after school, most teachers will be tired from teaching all day and will not be very enthusiastic.
- If a project is conducted on school time, it will require releasing the students or hiring substitutes. Parent groups have complained about the former practice, and administrators and school board members will not

usually finance the latter.

- If money and time are not provided to enable planning of a project by representatives of the prospective participants, they will not feel a vested interest in the proceedings.
- If a project spans the entire school year, people will complain that it is too long.
- If a project only lasts one or two sessions, people will complain that it is too short and there is no follow-up.
- If a project concentrates on one specific area or goal, it will be labeled as narrow and limiting, a one-shot attempt that fails to take other criteria into consideration.
- If a project attempts to be comprehensive, it will be labeled as shallow and lacking in substance.

Let us now factor in the history of inservice education.

Most teachers have viewed inservice education via college courses as a waste of time. They have accumulated credit hours because they have had to fulfill certification requirements or because they have felt that the extra pay they would receive as a result was a financial investment. As a result the prevailing attitude toward inservice education among teachers (and administrators as well) has been, "Give me the credit in as quick and painless a way as possible."

Most teachers have viewed inservice education in school districts as sporadic and inconsistent. Practically all such programs have been one-shot affairs with no follow-up and no long-range goals—in short, no permanence. To be meaningful to teachers, many people claim, inservice education should address a problem or deficiency perceived by teachers. Inservice programs in school districts seldom, if ever, have taken this approach. When they have, they have not been so successful as they could have been because they have usually involved the principal or superintendent, who is responsible for evaluating teachers. It is unrealistic to expect teachers openly to admit deficiencies to the person who rates their effectiveness.

I have outlined some of the reasons for doom and gloom. Let me now relate the major recommendations on inservice education that were recently released by the New York Commissioner of Education's Task Force on Teacher Education and Certification (Task Force, 1977).

Most states that have mandated inservice education have placed the responsibility squarely on the individual teacher—"If you don't accumulate *x* credit hours or inservice hours in *y* amount of time, you lose your license." The important difference in the recommended plan for

New York is that the mandate would be placed not on the individual to seek out and earn a certain number of credits each year, but on the school district to offer job-related inservice education programs. The New York plan would also mandate that the professional staff collaborate in planning and implementation and that the state fund inservice education through a formula that is sensitive to the wealth and size of a school district. Local education agencies would contract with colleges and universities to provide inservice programs, where appropriate.

The Task Force made a distinction between types of inservice education:

- Job-related inservice education consists of programming that is either directly or indirectly related to the acquisition of skills for the performance of the teacher's primary responsibility: instructing students. It may result in the acquisition of directly applicable skills, or it may include content that, while not directly applicable, is clearly related to job performance. The major thrust of these recommendations for inservice education is toward job-relatedness as determined by the local district.
- Professionally related inservice education focuses on those aspects of a teacher's role which are clearly required for good performance but are not child related or instructional. In every sense, however, they are professional activities and differentiate teachers from others who work in schools.
- Mobility-related inservice education is primarily designed to prepare the teacher to assume a new position and/or obtain a new credential. The transition from provisionally certified to permanently certified, for example, is mobility, and so is transition from teacher to administrator.
- Personal-improvement-related inservice education is characterized by the fact that its primary emphasis is on helping the teacher become a generally more effective human being rather than on acquiring specific professional expertise. Typically, this type of educational experience will be self-selected, and on occasion self-directed. (pp. 30-31)

The Task Force made the following basic recommendations on the implementation of inservice education:

- that local school districts provide job-related inservice opportunities for all professional staff members;
- that responsibility for planning and implementing inservice education be vested in local school district committees composed of official representatives of the district and of the faculty;
- that inservice education occur during the normal work day and year as well as outside this period upon agreement between official representatives of the district and of the faculty;
- that the state be responsible for funding inservice programs in each

school district [by a formula that recognizes student need and district wealth];

- that all professional staff members actively and on their own initiative avail themselves of other opportunities to improve professional growth. (p. 29)

Are the Task Force recommendations an answer to the doom and gloom facing inservice education? Obviously they are not, but they do have a number of positive aspects. First, morale of staff should be better because the onus would be lifted from the individual practitioner. If teachers did not participate in inservice programs, it would reflect on their employment rather than their licensure. Second, the recommendations would create a state structure and funding mechanism that would facilitate inservice programs in the entire state, not just in those districts that could afford it or were lucky enough to get federal money. Third, the recommendations would define inservice education. Fourth, they would provide for a governance structure that recognized the need for input from participants, administrators, and school board members on design and implementation. Fifth, and probably most important, the recommendations would create a structure for, and bring some order to, one of the most chaotic endeavors in education. One may have the best inservice demonstration project in the nation; one may be on the verge of creating the best inservice demonstration project in the history of education; but without a structure that brings order to the chaos and minimizes the negative feelings of people toward inservice education, the project will not realize its potential.

We face difficult financial conditions in most places in our nation. Embarking on a new thrust in education without a massive infusion of federal money, such as with the education of the handicapped or bilingual education, will be difficult. Relations between teacher unions and school districts are strained over shrinking finances and retrenchments. Colleges and universities and unions have not been on the best of terms, especially over legislation on teacher centers.

These are problems one cannot control or solve working alone. They require time to work out. One should be aware of them in embarking on demonstration and dissemination projects, and one should work toward developing a manageable structure so that projects can be used by others. If one only works on a demonstration project and not on the bigger issues, the bigger issues will not be solved.

## References

Task Force on Teacher Education and Certification. *Recommendations of the Commissioner's Task Force on Teacher Education and Certification*. Albany, N. Y.: The University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Office of Higher and Professional Education, 1977.

## Chapter Five

# Techniques and Strategies for Demonstrating Effective Practices in Inservice Teacher Education Programs

Roland Goddu

> It may be that the skills involved in research are different and perhaps antagonistic to those involved in development . . . and even more divergent (are) those involved in effecting changes in social systems necessary for adoption of the . . . technique. (Rossi, 1976, p. 4 )
>
> Assuming that research has been successful in a particular area, then the development of a working . . . model that can be employed within the context of existing institutions needs to be undertaken. (Rossi, 1976, p. 5)

With the emerging interest in demonstration and inservice education, teacher education gains the possibility of systematic entry into the research-and-development community. Many teacher education projects have been individual efforts at research and development and have been reported on officially at meetings of the American Educational Research Association. Now, through legislative action and organizational pressure, a major portion of teacher education efforts, as represented by Teacher Corps projects, are to be demonstrations—activities rationally organized to prove or disprove the usefulness of a product or process in reaching expected outcomes. Thus, a research-and-development framework has been placed on what was previously only a training-and-service effort. Historically, individual teacher education projects have tried out useful training hypotheses, such as competency-based teacher education, bilingual-bicultural curriculum, community education, team teaching, clinical supervision, and evaluation techniques, etc. They have reinvented, tried out, modified, articulated, documented, and reported practices that were workable and sometimes replicated in schools serving disadvantaged students. Teacher Corps funds and services have encouraged and supported research efforts at the individual-project level. The new legislation makes such support a formal require-

ment for all projects from the outset of planning. In general the amendment provides: (*a*) increased attention to improving the school/learning climate through Teacher Corps projects, (*b*) emphasis on reform in the training and retraining of education personnel through Teacher Corps projects, and (*c*) a greater focus on demonstration, documentation, institutionalization, and dissemination of the results of Teacher Corps projects.

Whatever Teacher Corps will require of teacher education projects that seek to be demonstrations, one research-and-development question will have to be addressed: how to help school and university practitioners in the project and other practitioners and agencies outside the project accept an innovation that has been demonstrated to be successful or useful for teaching disadvantaged and low-income students. That question is the focus of this chapter.

## Experience Concerns

Teacher Corps emphasizes participatory decision-making and development by all who are involved in the project: the director, the program-development specialist, the team leaders, the interns, the school principal, the community-development specialist, the community, and the university administration and faculty. Usually Teacher Corps project personnel see research and development as an interactive process with abundant feedback from and commitment by all the above parties. Such a process tends to be nonlinear—context to needs assessment to treatment, back to hypotheses to retraining to analysis, back to field-test to documentation to evaluation, back to model identification to training design and curriculum change. The Teacher Corps' practice raises at least conceptual dissonance in the minds of many persons who expect research and development to be linear and systematic—background to hypotheses to treatment to field-test to results—with little involvement of others, particularly those from the real world of schools and community, and no change during the process. Research-based development and school-based development are perceived by these persons as distinct, as are theory-based constructs and practice-based constructs. Teacher Corps asks persons now to mix the two, to operate as professionals in the space between research and practice, in a context where the university and the school are both equal. What is carried back and

forth from practice to research and research to practice will have to take into account teacher education efforts reported by content-based research and development, curriculum-reform projects funded by Title IV of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, competency-based teacher education, and elementary education models.

If one reviews these efforts, one finds some common characteristics that are not shared by Teacher Corps demonstrations.

- Research is seen as distinct from development; researchers are distinct from developers. In contrast, in Teacher Corps demonstrations the group decides what is to be developed, what has been discovered, what will be demonstrated.
- Products and processes deemed ready for development are listed in catalogs when they have met some hard, scientific criteria. In contrast, in Teacher Corps demonstrations the criteria for readiness for demonstration are soft.
- Products and processes successfully reach other school practitioners when a salesperson or linker helps connect the user to the product or process through a series of concrete steps such as (*a*) awareness sessions, (*b*) selection of a product or process to review, (*c*) its try-out with peers who have used it, (*d*) evaluation of its relevance, (*e*) its adaptation to the setting in which it will be used, and (*f*) evaluation of its applicability by the user and the producer. In contrast, in Teacher Corps demonstrations a group tries out products and processes as problem solutions. It selects those products and processes that it discovers on its own, at its stage of readiness, with its own expectations and patterns for access to and adaptation of a construct or material.
- Trainers who are most successful in transmitting an idea, process, or product are not usually the inventors or researchers. Rather they are practitioners like those who will accept or reject the innovation. In contrast, in Teacher Corps demonstrations, trainers are those brought in to teach a concept that the group will manipulate or arrange.
- Continuing impact of an innovation depends on publication and marketing of a document or series of materials. In contrast, in Teacher Corps demonstrations, institutionalization depends on institutions hiring persons and granting tenure to those who know and can deliver the innovation in a particular kind of setting, continuing financial support to groups of individuals, and receiving acceptable public recognition for the effect of the demonstration.

Traditional research-and-development projects provide little evidence about how collaborative decision-making affects research or development, usually because little sharing occurs. Some evidence may be forthcoming from National Institute of Education-funded studies of School-Based Problem-Solving and from the Office of Education-fund-

ed National Facilitator Network efforts.

Teacher Corps has primarily concentrated on providing high-quality teachers for schools with a high proportion of disadvantaged learners. Projects have focused on teaching skills, attitudes, knowledge, understanding, and even competencies to young adults moving into a very specialized mode of professional service as a teacher. The aim has been to help people learn how to survive, how to influence, how to improve an environment under crisis pressures. Most research-and-development efforts in teacher education have occurred in safer environments or have focused on a particular process skill, understanding, or competency that was seen as generalizable to all teachers. Teacher Corps projects have drawn together activists, innovators, trainers, and entrepreneurs, all of whom have reputations for impact on persons training to teach in a specific crisis school or system. These individuals, as individuals or in groups, have kept track of products and processes for training similar types of people in other projects; they have assumed that the effect will be the same. Traditional research-and-development approaches have not made that assumption. So Teacher Corps projects have another dissonance with traditional research and development in teacher education: Teacher Corps develops complex processes and products to influence a total but peculiar (in the scientific sense) kind of classroom; most research-and-development efforts develop simple products or processes for use by all kinds of teachers in the general kind of classrooms in all schools. By focusing on demonstration of effective practice, Teacher Corps asks education personnel to examine theory and practice in the conceptual spaces between the applicability of research findings to practice on the one hand, and what works in an objective, high-quality process to support results in a research community. Reviewing the experience and records of Education Professions Development Act projects, National Science Foundation faculty institutes, and other teacher education efforts provides minimal insights on how to address this problem of research in practice. Some notions that bear examination from teacher-development efforts under Programs for the Education of the Handicapped are:

- Learning about planning and evaluation, which assist in diagnosis of learning needs, is distinct from learning about classroom practices or student-involvement strategies, which are prescriptions for learning needs.
- Preservice training and inservice training are distinct logically, but not necessarily in reality. The key variable affecting program design and outcome is ability—that of the new professional at one extreme, that of the

experienced professional at the other. The variety of ability requires different training situations for new and experienced professionals, to analyze their experiences and consolidate their learning. The same product and process can be learned by both.

- Adult learning styles require that more initiative and responsibility for selection of learning opportunities be placed in the hands of the teacher trainee as learner. Interest and awareness precede examination and analysis, which precede adaptation and evaluation, which precede acceptance *in practice*.
- An individual's acceptance of truly professional teacher roles is developmental and dimensional. The competency of master teacher in all dimensions is acquired by few.

In sum, Teacher Corps projects are different from most currently recognized research-and-development efforts in three significant ways:

- Most Teacher Corps projects accept a developmental approach to research and development in which recycling and exploration continually modify hypotheses and treatments. The dissimilarity of this approach to the traditional linear approach is reinforced by Teacher Corps' collaborative decision-making.
- Most Teacher Corps projects emphasize the training delivered to specific trainees and the ability of those trainees to perform in very special schools. Such efforts require enormous commitment of personal energy, time, and resources to develop skills that are effective with a particular group of students.
- Most Teacher Corps projects somehow involve the community, a component not usually addressed in ordinary teacher education programs or research.

What, then, are some techniques and strategies for demonstrating effective practices to those in the project and those outside it?

## Alternative Approaches

The most commonly discussed strategies for introducing educational practices to teachers are: publishers; talking with fellow educators; conferences and workshops; degree programs; curriculum development projects; reading professional magazines and research journals; teacher centers; the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC); and the Office of Education's National Diffusion Network. Of these, only some curriculum development projects with specially attached demonstration units and some degree programs with laboratory schools can be considered systematic demonstration efforts that have communicated a par-

ticular teacher practice through a structured training program. Others have demonstrated a practice simply by pointing to a person, place, or material that can show how the practice works. Developing a systematic demonstration of an effective practice places certain expectations on a project:

*For Insiders*

- identify possible practices to be learned (often phrased, conduct a need's assessment);
- through a catalog or awareness session, present a description of the practices to the insiders eligible to receive training;
- (sometimes) provide the insiders with an opportunity to visit a school in which the practices are being used;
- (often) bring in a specially trained instructor to work with selected trainees, usually through workshops;
- provide time and resources to trainees to develop their own adaptation of the practices, usually through a small grant;
- usually through a newsletter or a role as a trainer, often at a conference, provide special recognition to trainees who develop a workable practice.

*For Outsiders*

- identify possible practices for examination;
- identify adaptations of the practices that are in use in the project—either activities of trainees or training components developed by project staff;
- present examples of successful practices—again, either activities of trainees or training components developed by project staff;
- prepare booklets describing selected trainee activities or project components.

The above approach assumes that the practices being demonstrated have already been invented and somewhat tried out. A project is demonstrating how to make the practices work in a particular setting. Participants in the project have actually refined the practices. Outsiders learn what has been refined and how.

A second strategy for demonstrating effective practices places project trainees in the role of developer. Working with staff who are experienced with the practices to be learned, trainees take the practices through sufficient planning, implementation, and evaluation in a school setting to make themselves competent developers and practitioners of the practices. Many who use this approach see teaching as an art learned from others through experience and the teacher as the practitioner of many interdependent roles. A demonstration using this approach would do the following:

*For Insiders*

- have trainees agree to work with selected master practitioners;
- schedule a cycle of planning, implementation, and evaluation to assure that analysis, reworking, and adjusting of application and theory occur almost daily;
- accept intuition, insight, exploration, and successive approximation in the actual development of practices;
- record and feed back progress toward installation of the practices being learned and developed into a model;
- have trainees regularly discuss their growth as a professional teacher.

*For Outsiders*

- describe the characteristics of the practices being attempted;
- identify procedures for becoming an insider;
- present examples of successful development, training, teaching, and evaluation.

This approach assumes that the ideal practices have yet to be developed; what can be demonstrated is the state of the art.

A third strategy for demonstrating effective practices requires detailing the characteristics (techniques, skills, knowledge, etc.) needed for a person to be a recognized practitioner of particular practices. Trainees identify and select activities that will complement or complete their acquisition of the techniques, skills, knowledge, etc., that describe the practices. In this approach to demonstration, projects would do the following:

*For Insiders*

- specify the characteristics needed to become a model practitioner;
- identify acceptable activities that assist in the acquisition of the needed characteristics;
- provide opportunities for review, diagnosis, analysis, and documentation that plot progress in attaining characteristics;
- certify attainment of characteristics (techniques, skills, knowledge, etc.).

*For Outsiders*

- indicate experiences available at the site that will assist outside trainees in acquiring needed characteristics;
- provide some self-learning programmed materials that will assist outside trainees in acquiring certain characteristics;
- provide a method for measuring attainment of characteristics;
- provide a record of learning outcomes for outside trainees using techniques.

The third approach assumes that a practice can be broken into a series of discrete characteristics for which individual training sequences can be designed. It further assumes that acquisition of all of the characteristics equals competent practice. The demonstration is in the evidence that certain sequences of materials, experiences, confrontations, and activities have a continuing, consistent, reliable effect on persons seeking to acquire the characteristics. What is demonstrated is the training package.

A fourth approach to demonstrating effective practices is to use certain practitioners as exemplars. In this approach a project would list selected exemplars, arrange apprenticeships with exemplars for individuals, and record products and processes developed by exemplars and apprentices.

The fourth approach assumes that a practice can only be learned by apprenticeship to a person who exemplifies the practice and is available to explain, guide, and analyze. What is demonstrated is the complete practice of a master, which can be adapted by a student into a new form of excellent practice.

The range of approaches presented here has moved from a precise listing of products and processes with some level of formal evidence of success to an imprecise identification of a practitioner who effectively uses certain products and processes. All approaches are currently in use as methods of demonstrating exemplary practice. This fact indicates another fundamental disagreement in the profession and the research community: how one identifies a quality product or process and how one provides for a quality demonstration. Objective criteria help identify a quality product or process. Yet some qualitative processes and products occur in complex teaching and development settings where objective criteria are difficult to apply. The most effective demonstrators of effective practice are master practitioners who exemplify excellence of application of products and processes, but who themselves are most difficult to identify with objective criteria. Thus, when what is to be demonstrated can be specified, who can demonstrate it becomes difficult; and when who can demonstrate is specified, what can be demonstrated becomes somewhat fortuitous. Innovations with impact have large doses of process and product specificity and identified master practitioners. The appropriate demonstration strategy seems to be a contextual or philosophical matter. Effective demonstrations are recorded in all four approaches.

## Other Levels of Impact

Demonstrating effective practices to practitioners inside and outside the project's target areas is one question. Another question is whether the demonstration has an effect on significant others: the faculty of education, other faculty members, the school system as a whole, other school systems, the state department of education, the profession, and faculties at other institutions. Demonstration for these audiences is usually undertaken to attain professional recognition and continuing support for the demonstration effort.

Professional recognition usually comes in the following forms: (*a*) tenure; (*b*) employment by a group of peers; (*c*) employment of a student whom one has trained in/through the project; (*d*) recognition of publications; (*e*) approval of one's program by faculty groups, funding agencies, etc., and (*f*) adoption and use of one's program. People are the carriers of the practices in types (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*); materials are the carriers in (*d*), (*e*), and (*f*). A demonstration effort, then, must from the start be aware that it needs somehow to make visible to outside audiences both quality persons and quality materials. A demonstration is challenged to (*a*) identify the quality characteristics of persons who would be acceptable to the college or school system that hires and to the state department that certifies, and (*b*) identify the standards for recording and documentation that would lead to publication as a research paper, as a material or text, as a usable handbook. Identification of the criteria and standards for performance and publication also indicates the kinds of documentation needed to back up the validity of the demonstration and the performances of the particular individuals who made such a quality demonstration possible. Efforts to document effective practices developed in a project by qualified personnel do not in themselves assure recognition or acceptance. Some recognition and acceptance by an institution comes in terms of promotion into available slots. Some professional recognition comes in invitations to publish and to speak. Both activities result from demonstrated competence and through political processes that operate independently of the project, persons, or materials involved. Quality can be controlled; availability of slots, invitations, and space cannot.

Continuing support for an effort is affected by timing, availability of funds, and commitment. Identifiable forms of support that projects seek from institutions as a sign of successful demonstrations are hard institu-

tional money for personnel, special-equipment and library purchases, space allocation or renovation, a new building, and endowment.

All of these forms of support are tied to reallocation of institutional dollars. Federally supported research-and-development projects face a significant constraint that makes acquisition of such dollars difficult—public ownership of their products and processes. If project personnel or supporting institutions expect to generate income from the sale of publications or services, at the outset they must negotiate copyright and patent arrangements that allow for such income production. There are myriad examples of products and processes left on a shelf by individuals or institutions because of squabbles with the federal government over ownership. Many a great development group has been ripped apart on this issue. Many a professional effort has ceased while project members sort out among themselves who invented the idea or product or process and what is an appropriate or fair weighting of authorship and ownership. The closer one gets to a refined high-quality product, the more intense the ownership claims become from individuals. Then begins the debate with the government over equitable rights. Similar and more crucial conflicts occur between project and institution, and between institution and federal government. Ownership is not an easy question to resolve. Yet the money is the energy that can justify and release institutional support. The long-term promise of royalties and dollars makes possible the investment in tenure (personnel) and facilities.

Large federal grants are useful leverage, but total support from the federal government or an outside agency reduces the local or institutional share of ownership of the product or process. Asking a dean or president or superintendent for institutional dollar support for personnel, space, equipment, a special facility even, requires long and patient negotiation and continual evidence, not only that the project has a quality product or process and a useful impact, but also that others are interested in using the product or process. Getting soft or hard dollars for a quality demonstration means targeting the money, decision-makers, motivation, agendas, and even the various self-interests. Often federal agendas conflict with state and local agendas here, a problem compounded when both the agency and the individual claim ownership of the effective products or processes. On short delivery schedules, what dollars can purchase controls the project. In longer-term projects, where impact is more pervasive, what control comes with the dollars needs to be carefully weighed. Personnel at university research-and-develop-

ment centers have wrestled long and hard with this problem. Their experience bears examination.

The point is not that funding agencies should be asked to put up money for buildings. The point is that developing a process or product to the stage in which it is reliable and efficient in existing schools and colleges requires a heavy investment of time, energy, and money. Refinement itself requires establishing controls to assure that personnel are skilled in delivering the products and processes. These persons require adequate support and recognition. Energizing and maintaining them at a high level of productivity usually requires: a clear agreement on ownership of product and process; a consistent, reliable allocation of resources to develop the demonstration and train persons in it; adequate facilities to house together the developers and trainers; and abundant support for product and process refinement, remodeling, field-testing, and promotion. The dollars for these key activities of a demonstration are the most difficult to acquire from the local or state level. When federal dollars are used instead, ownership and sponsorship again become issues.

When projects are assured sufficient federal, local, and other support to develop, demonstrate, and promote products and processes, they can build track records that allow them to gain institutional support for salaries, facilities, new equipment, and libraries. Institutional funds for a project come only by serendipity or over the long haul. Building a record of accomplishment and quality is the only technique that assures consideration by institutional money holders. And then they will need to see some recurring income from tuition, royalties, or fees that offsets the investment.

## Summary

Effective demonstration projects will most probably follow patterns already existing in the research-and-development community. These patterns can be summarized as follows:

- Decide what you will demonstrate. Be precise. Give it a name. Choose products and processes that are drawn from a research tradition of some repute, and invest your energy in the acceptance of modifications of these products and processes by specific kinds of schools and colleges.
- Acquire the necessary facilities, personnel, equipment, materials, time, and money to do a high-quality job. Define your quality expectations early, with your targets clearly in mind: the profession, the classroom, the college, the accreditation process, etc.

- Identify in advance the internal development process you will follow. Recycle often. Document products and processes used in each cycle.
- Identify in advance the process you will use to share products and processes with outsiders. Establish clear rules and roles for outsiders, including the funding agent. Define what products or processes will be shared when and under what caveats. Define ownership and sponsorship arrangements.
- Give your project an identity distinct from the product or process to be demonstrated. People are tied to products or processes; projects are tied to institutions. Institutional support comes to a project.
- Apply "Rule 23": In all situations remember that reality overcomes logic and perfection. Do not lose sight of program quality while responding to political and personality pressures.

Finally, remember what many in the research community believe:

> The search for accountability cannot be based upon agreed-upon objectives starting from first principles, because there will never be agreement upon the nature or priority of social objectives . . . The present uncertainties should lead R & D planners to a strategy in which the process of experimentation is consciously used as a mechanism that helps define social values. (Pincus, 1974, p. 138)

## References

Pincus, John. Incentives for innovation in the public schools. *Review of Educational Research*, 1974, *44*(1), 113-144.

Rossi, Peter H. Assessing organizational capacity for educational R&D in an academic institution. *Educational Researcher*, 1976, *5*(4), 3-11.

## Chapter Six

# Demonstration of Delivery Systems for Inservice Education

Karl Massanari

The term "delivery system" incorporates two subconcepts—"delivery" and "system." The root word for "delivery" is "deliver," and according to Webster's dictionary (1967), it has several meanings: "to set free; to hand over: convey; to assist in giving birth; also: to aid in the birth of; utter, relate; to send to an intended destination" (p. 218). Applied to an inservice education project, the different meanings would lead to different approaches to inservice education.

From the clients' (teachers') point of view, the implications of the different meanings are one or more of the following:

- The clients want to be set free, or liberated (from ignorance or ineffective practices).
- The clients want *x* (content, process, expertise, materials, etc.), something worthy of delivery.
- The clients want assistance in giving birth (to new ideas).
- The clients want to hear utterances, pronouncements.
- The clients want *x* sent somewhere (and in a certain manner).

From the deliverer's point of view, the implications are as follows:

- The deliverer wants to assist in setting clients free (from the use of ineffective practices).
- The deliverer has *x* (content, process, expertise, materials, etc.), something worthy of delivery, and wants to hand it over to the clients.
- The deliverer is willing to assist in giving birth (to the clients' new ideas).
- The deliverer is ready to make pronouncements.
- The deliverer wants to send *x* somewhere (and in a certain manner).

This brief excursion into the semantics of the word "deliver" makes clear that the word alone is inadequate to convey what we mean with respect to the provision of inservice education opportunities by an agency.

Likewise, the word "system" has several meanings. Two of the less technical ones are: "A group of devices . . . forming a network esp. for distributing something or serving a common purpose" and "an organized or established procedure: method" (Webster's, 1967, p. 895). Applied to an inservice education project, "system" implies that the project has *(a)* an organized or established procedure to deliver *x* and *(b)* a group of devices forming a network to distribute *x* to its clients.

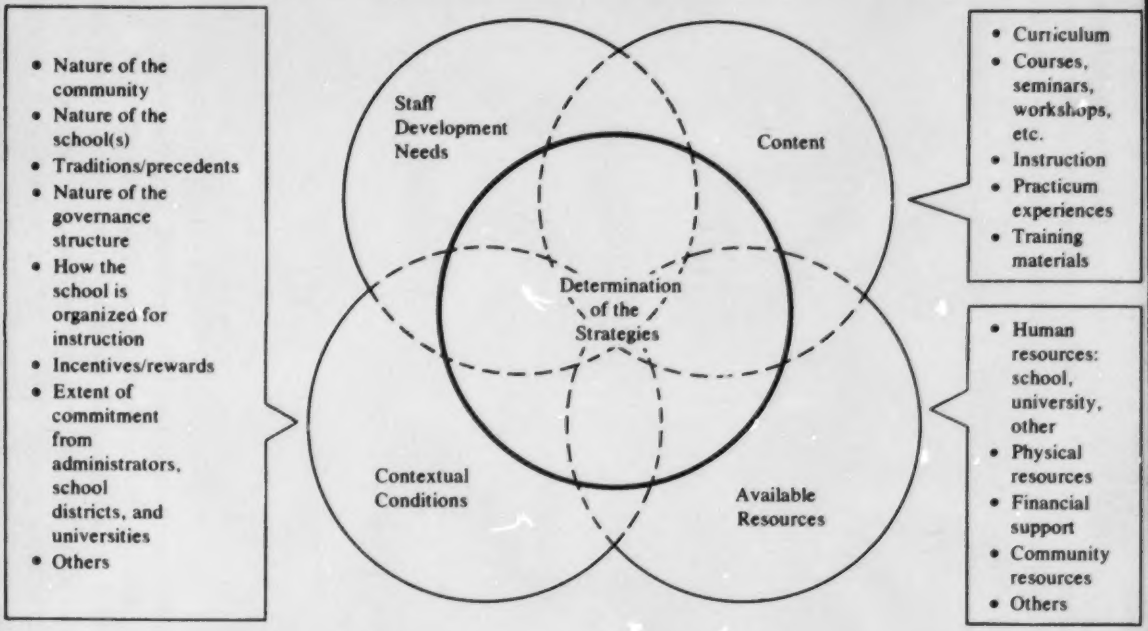
What does all of this analysis mean? It suggests at once that there is more than one approach to providing inservice education opportunities for clients. One approach would be to select certain devices from a catalog of delivery mechanisms on a hit-or-miss basis, implement them on a trial-and-error basis, retain those that appear to work, and discard those that do not. An illustration of such a catalog is appended. Another approach would be to select certain devices from a catalog of delivery mechanisms and design them into an organized delivery network. The network, or system, would be established in advance of delivery and be used to deliver the project's *x*.

I reject both approaches for these reasons: *(a)* The first approach is mechanistic/atomistic and would probably not yield a system in the long run. *(b)* Both approaches incorporate the defect of predetermination, that is, determination of design prior to delivery and with little or no regard for clients' needs and interests. In addition, both imply the imposition of an externally designed system or plan. *(c)* The term "delivery system" itself is inappropriate to describe what we really are talking about. We need to think of other approaches to the solution of the problem. One approach emerges from interrelating the various factors that have a bearing on providing effective inservice education.

## An Emerging Approach

We are concerned about the demonstration of effective strategies to meet staff development needs of school personnel in specific situations. The particular context may impose certain limitations; it may provide certain opportunities; and it may itself be subject and responsive to certain modifications. This approach to thinking about the problem rejects predetermined plans/systems. It emphasizes the interrelationship of staff development and a specific situation, the emergence of strategies to meet staff development needs from such an interrelationship, and evalu-

**Figure 1. Determination of Strategies for Meeting Staff Development Needs**



ation of the effectiveness of the strategies that are employed (quality control).

As illustrated in Figure 1, the determination of strategies for meeting staff development needs (providing inservice education) is a process involving the interrelationship of staff development needs, the content or substance required to meet those needs, the contextual conditions, and the available resources. In this approach, strategies emerge; they are not predetermined. Strategies, as used here, refers to the ways in which content (curriculum, instruction, experiences, etc.) is provided to meet staff development needs within the parameters set by contextual conditions and available resources. But strategies may also include provisions for changing existing conditions, creating new ones, or expanding the available pool of resources.

Although the main focus of this chapter is on inservice education, the approach of emerging strategies has implications for preservice education as well, especially when one views education personnel development as a career-long continuum. The implications will influence both the campus- and the field-based components of a preparation program.

## Demonstration of Strategies for Meeting Staff Development Needs

The topic under consideration includes not only the determination of strategies to use in meeting staff development needs, but also demonstration of those strategies. Let us return to our approach of examining the meanings of words and look at "demonstrate," the root word for "demonstration": "to show clearly; to prove or make clear by reasoning or by evidence; to illustrate and explain esp. with many examples" (Webster's, 1967, p. 220). "Demonstration," then, means "an outward expression, or display; an act, process, or means of proving to the intelligence" (p. 220) by reasoning or by conclusive evidence.

Application of the concept "demonstration" to the provision of inservice education likewise has two meanings or implications: A project implements certain strategies for meeting staff development needs and shows clearly how they are to be implemented and how they work in practice; and a project shows that these strategies are more effective than others. The burden of proof of the effectiveness of the strategies used is not integral to the first meaning of the concept; it is to the second.

Because the knowledge base that supports staff development needs to be expanded, I take the position that demonstration should include efforts to show that one strategy is more effective than others. Such demonstration should make it possible to assert that:

1. a particular strategy (or cluster of strategies) in a particular context *(a)* does not work or *(b)* is more effective than some other one.
2. a particular strategy (or cluster of strategies) is more effective than some other strategy (or strategies) *(a)* if certain conditions are present, and/or *(b)* when certain resources are available, and/or *(c)* when a particular content is involved.

This position about demonstration has significant implications. Readiness to experiment is a prerequisite. Careful documentation/description of experience is required. Evaluation is imperative. Some formal research may be necessary.

## Decision-Making and Action Steps

The implementation of an emerging approach to inservice education suggests a number of steps for decision-making and action. The steps need not be taken sequentially. Decision-making about any one step need not be independent of decision-making about other steps. Determining the strategies to use in providing inservice education will depend on interrelating the steps.

1. Determine how to identify staff development needs and what they are.
2. Determine what instruction, courses, seminars, workshops, independent study, practicum experiences, and training materials will likely be required to meet the needs.
3. Analyze the contextual conditions to determine what restraints they impose and what potential they have for contributing to effective staff development programs; consider how the conditions might be changed to make them less restrictive.
4. Analyze the available resources to determine their potential as well as their restraints and to consider how the available pool of resources might be expanded as necessary.
5. Examine relevant research to ascertain which findings might contribute to meeting staff development needs effectively.
6. Interrelating the outcomes of the previous steps, determine what kinds of content (as defined earlier) are needed and the strategies for providing them.
7. Establish and implement quality-control mechanisms (documentation,

evaluation procedures, research designs) to demonstrate the effectiveness of the strategies being used.

8. Modify the strategies in accordance with feedback from experience.

## A Final Word

If the proposed model were implemented at a number of sites, documentation, evaluation, and research would yield valuable findings regarding the effectiveness of different strategies in different contexts with different pools of available resources, and for different kinds of content. Such findings should be collected, clarified, synthesized, and disseminated to the education community. They would be valuable and needed contributions to the knowledge base that supports education personnel development. Publications such as "What's Working Where" and "What Didn't Work Here" would be welcomed by the education profession. Demonstration as used in the title of this article, then, means expanding the knowledge base that presently supports staff development of education personnel.

## References

*Webster's seventh new collegiate dictionary*. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1967.

## Chapter Seven

# Institutional Responsibility for Inservice Education

William L. Smith

There is probably no single area in education that has more said about it today, with less known, than teacher education. This is particularly true of effective teacher practices for delivering service to children.

The basic reason for this condition is simple. Society has not yet agreed on a set of objectives and functions from which schooling can be carried out. The absence of agreement affects American education in general and teacher education in particular. We must resolve some of the questions about the function of the school, the function of other institutions and their relationship to the school, and the accountability of educators for the achievement of students.

One of the problems plaguing education today is that because the school has a captive audience as a result of compulsory attendance, society expects it to solve all the problems that other institutions have failed to solve. Society further expects that the solution will come without large amounts of new resources and without examining the structure, climate, and organization of the school. Yet we have no real knowledge or empirical information about the most effective ways of accomplishing the task.

That was the hard half of my message. The other half is more optimistic. More can probably be accomplished now than ever before. To illustrate what I mean, recall several recent decades of history.

Let us first go back to the 1940s. When one thinks about the 1940s, one thinks about the war and the war years. In my opinion those years provided the last evidence we have of effective achievement of national goals by our society. During those years we as a people came together and made sacrifices and adjustments to achieve a common goal. Some of you might disagree and say, "There was the energy crisis." The energy crisis (more specifically the gasoline lines) was an exception, but it was

short-lived, and thus it never really mobilized people behind a cause. Therefore, as I see it, World War II really was the last time we as a people came together to achieve a national objective. I call that the Period of Nationalism.

The 1950s were what I call the Period of Complacency. We returned from the war, in which there had been success. Affluence had begun to emerge as a result of incomes from work in the defense plants, and prosperity began to increase. Complacency began to take hold as we moved out of the cities. We assumed that we had achieved objectives in the 1940s that were going to help us make a better society. Suburbs, suburbia, and "the good life" became the way of the 1950s.

It was not until the early 1960s, when Conant (1962) used the phrase "social dynamite" and Riessman (1962) wrote about the culturally deprived child, that we began to introspect. I call this self-examination the Period of Awareness. In this period several things occurred: We became aware of great social needs; we became aware of poverty; we became aware of cultural differences; we became aware of dissidence; we became aware of cultural changes; and we saw a number of revolutions—of teachers, minorities, poor people, ethnic groups, women, and youth. Then, of course, there were the riots in the mid 1960s. Finally there was the knowledge revolution. More scientific and technological information had been generated in a 10-year period than had been produced and accumulated in the previous 100 years. The changes made us critically aware of the needs, the people, and the era. The irony was that because of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and because of many other pieces of Great Society legislation, the Period of Awareness was enhanced by the Period of Great Hope and Optimism.

The Period of Great Hope and Optimism was characterized by great promise. One unfortunate thing about the period was our level of expectation. We in the United States, as a people, had become so instant-product oriented that we demanded instant solutions in all circumstances. It is not difficult to understand how this attitude developed. There were instant meals, instant playbacks in sports, instant retrieval systems, and instant cooking. Therefore, the reasoning went, solutions are not a problem. Resources will be obtained to meet the need. Success will occur, so we can forget about a problem before we lose our patience with it, and another problem can then be tackled until all problems are addressed.

It took a while to learn that human problems do not readily yield to

instant short-term solutions. This learning produced a transition. The Period of Great Hope and Optimism led to the 1970s, the present, which I call the Period of Reality. Today no one is buying into the "instant" concept.

It is quite easy for me to talk about the 1940s, the 1950s, the 1960s, and the first three quarters of the 1970s. They are past and when one is looking at things in retrospect, it is easier to be much more analytical.

It reminds me of what I heard Henry Kissinger, in his last days as Secretary of State, tell a group of newspaper editors about the difference between policy decision-making and policy analysis: In policy decision-making you have to use whatever data are available to you at the moment when a decision is required to meet a situation. Time can force a decision that would have been made differently had more time been available to gather more data. With policy analysis, on the other hand, you have as much time as you need for the opportunity to collect additional data after the fact. This, then, enables you to analyze the context in which the decision was made.

Recognizing the difference between policy analysis and policy decision-making, I will discuss my view of the 1970s and where we might expect it to lead us.

The first reality is quite clear. We are in a financial crisis. It is also quite evident that we have an energy crisis. Further, the issue of accountability, whether it has been fostered by competency-based education or by state legislation, is real and pressing. There is a feeling among some that competency-based education can, in fact, force schools and teachers and universities to be more accountable.

Related to this, we are hearing more and more discussion about how one might look at achievement. My basic contention is that, in this Period of Reality, we are looking at achievement myopically. We are letting the issue of achievement and the problems faced in attempting to develop a system by which children learn better, obscure reality. Technology, especially media, is producing better informed and more sophisticated children and young adults than ever before in the history of this country. That fact is extremely important. It forces us to ask whether we are using the right kind of instrumentation and the proper set of assumptions in looking at what children know. This issue will have to be faced when we ask the question: Is the structure and organization of schools and the process of schooling any different now than it was a hundred years ago? In the Period of Reality we are going to have to

reexamine our assumptions about the teaching-learning process. Most important, we may have to find a way to educate our society to the fact that our children are not so deficient as the newsprint indicates.

The present generation will play an important role in the 1980s, a time that I think will come to be known as the Humane Period. The evidence that we are beginning to generate with regard to individualized instruction and personalized services will warrant that term. We are beginning to realize that there is truth to the adage, "Different strokes for different folks." Children do not learn in the same way, do not respond to the same kinds of stimuli, and do not even have the same information needs. The challenge this presents, of course, is in terms of our training. Historically we have not been trained to sort out the differences among children, identify them, diagnose them, and then confidently prescribe, from the totality of educational experiences, the kind of activities from which a child will benefit most. Once achieved, the movement toward humaneness in learning can foster new attitudes and beliefs not only about the nature of learning, but even more important, about the humanness of teaching. We will no longer concern ourselves about who or what the learner is racially, ethnically, socially, economically, or academically; he or she will simply be a human being with individual needs that must and can be met by teachers who have confidence in themselves and the materials they use, and confidence in and respect for the children whom they serve.

Only then can we move to what I call the Period of Technology—a time when technology will be viewed as a resource that can be plugged into a humane system. One of the big dilemmas faced in education today is whether technology is being devised to replace or supplement teachers. We tend to be very fearful of our own technology. This is understandable. For some reason we have put the cart before the horse. We cannot move from technology to humaneness. We have to begin with humaneness to accept technology.

Once we have understood and accepted technology and its use, the year 2000 will mark a truly new Period of Discovery. By that time we will have recognized that technology is a vehicle that helps us discover a new world and new people. When this occurs, we will be able to deal earnestly with the question of an international culture. We will no longer think in terms of a national culture or even a national pluralistic setting. We will think in terms of a global cultural setting, and we will have a world view of people.

This discussion has implications for institutional responsibility. All of us come from institutions and feel a very strong obligation to them. These institutions have certain responsibilities, and we want to see them carried out. The major shortcoming is that we have not developed a system to ascertain what responsibility is reasonable for which institution. With this point in mind, let us look at institutional responsibility in the context of inservice education.

As was mentioned earlier, we are in the worst and best of times. Educators tend to see forces at work against them rather than for them. This perception has precipitated the need for collaborative relationships among those who, historically, have stood aloof from one another. Such collaboration may be the only real alternative for survival. What is becoming quite apparent is that teachers are not going to remain powerless in this new relationship. They want to be involved in decision-making. They want to be involved in program administration. They want to be involved in and accountable for what it is they, in fact, will carry out.

Institutions of higher education have historically placed teacher education on the lowest rung. Yet much is being demanded of teacher education to deliver new kinds of services to new kinds of clientele. If schools of education do not change, they will go out of business. No one will seek their services.

The evidence of what is happening is plain. Take, for example, either the new Congressional legislation on the use of federal money or state legislation on the use of state money, both to educate teachers. Can it really be argued that institutions of higher education are going to deliver the same kind of services to a smaller and smaller clientele? That kind of thinking is out of the question. The key is whether those of us responsible for the institutions are in positions to make the necessary transition. The question is no longer, Can we? but How will we and how soon?

Neither schools nor institutions of higher education can train and educate teachers alone. One provides the experiential base; the other provides the theoretical base. Add to these the political, philosophical, and pragmatic bases provided by the community that these institutions serve. Each contributes a part that can no longer be excluded from schooling and teacher education—hence the necessity to collaborate on the appropriateness of strategy and the distribution of responsibility and function. In a period when the energy crisis has brought attention to waste, there is no room for the duplication of functions or the intentional or unintentional waste of human potential. The transition from what

Spindler (1955) called the traditional to the emergent value structure dictates a change in the way we go about educating teachers, be they prospective or practicing. It is time to expedite the process of transition, however different the future will be from the present.

One of the important needs is to get clarity on what is meant by the term "inservice education." It would be very useful to discuss what kinds of training designs, not necessarily new ones, are most successful and why. The United States Office of Education recognized five years ago that the least amount of research and documentation done has been in teacher education—research and documentation that relate the amount of resources used for training to the impact of that training on teachers and their behavior, and the impact on children. We have not yet seen how those three pieces fit together.

We must become able to indicate, not only for ourselves but for others, the conditions on which an effort is being made and the extent to which, in terms of the objectives established, there is or is not success, and most important, why. We must become accustomed to saying that something was not successful and why, without having people feel that somebody has to be blamed. This can only come about through honest collaboration. It will come about when each institution makes clear the extent to which it will deliver the kinds of services for which it can be accountable. We need to sort out the areas in which institutional responsibilities overlap and the areas that are the responsibility of particular institutions. We must not be afraid to go to the collaboration table and negotiate from that position, a position of strength. If we really expect institutional change, and if we expect institutional obligation, we must begin to ask the question, What has this institution historically been responsible for doing, and what can this institution be accountable for doing now?

## References

Conant, James Bryant. *Slums and suburbs*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.

Riessman, Frank. *The culturally deprived child*. New York: Harper & Row, 1962.

Spindler, George. *Education and anthropology*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1955.

## Appendix

# Selected Resources on Inservice Education

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Performance-Based Teacher Education Project

This appendix is divided into four sections: A Sampler of Inservice Education Programs; Concept Papers/Inservice Models; Selected Research/Theory about Inservice Education; and Other Related References. The document is not intended to be comprehensive. Items were excerpted from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education data base, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education's Information Center on Performance-Based Teacher Education, and the Performance-Based Teacher Education Project files. The document illustrates the kind of available literature on the topic and the variety of kinds of inservice education programs. The fact that a program is listed in this document does not necessarily indicate a degree of "goodness." No evaluation criteria related to program quality were used in making the selections.

## A Sampler of Inservice Education Programs

The programs described below are samples of existing (or recent) inservice education projects. They were selected on the basis of unique features that might be of interest to readers. The site of each program, the name of its director (if possible), and a brief narrative describing the program are provided. Special features of the program are noted by letters at the end of the description. A key to the features follows:

**A**—use of a computer
**B**—self-improvement contract
**C**—teacher center structure
**D**—mobile delivery system

**E**—satellite/television/radio
**F**—workshops
**G**—use of consultants
**H**—media center/use of audiovisual materials
**I**—curriculum package (modules)
**J**—collaboration
**K**—community involvement
**L**—school based
**M**—independent instruction
**N**—competency-based characteristics
**O**—research based

ALABAMA. **Continuous Professional Development Program.** Sponsored by Auburn University, the Alabama State Department of Education, and 10 school districts. Reported by Landa L. Trentham and J. Robert Mayfield in "Alabama's Cooperative Program for Teacher Education," *Inservice*, October 1976, pp. 8-10.

The Continuous Professional Development Program is designed to accomplish four basic tasks: *(a)* assist local school districts in planning and implementing professional development programs; *(b)* use knowledge and information gained from the implementation of the program as resources for the improvement of teacher preparation programs at Auburn University; *(c)* make available to first-year personnel professional services designed to enhance the probability of successful role performance; and *(d)* develop a viable model for assisting the State Department of Education, teacher preparation institutions, and public school districts in effectively implementing the resolutions of the State Board of Education. Three characteristics make this a unique collaborative program: a democratic governance structure; a unified budget; and shared resources. **F G H J N**

COLORADO. **An alternative delivery system for inservice vocational teacher education.** Sponsored by the Colorado State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education (Denver), Colorado State University (Fort Collins), Department of Vocational Education, and University of Northern Colorado (Greeley), Department of Vocational Education. Reported by Donald L. Richardson et al. in *Effectiveness of an Alternative Delivery System for In-Service Vocational Teacher Education*, Final Report, Denver, Colo.: Colorado State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education,

Colorado State University, and University of Northern Colorado, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 123 432)

This project was designed to provide vocational teacher educators in Colorado with an alternative delivery system for inservice vocational teacher education that would overcome barriers of distance, expense, weather, and low student density. A task force of staff members of the sponsoring institutions and teacher-coordinators from all service areas in vocational education formulated a curriculum. An alternative delivery system for off-campus instruction using videotapes and other audiovisual materials, printed modules, and facilitators was developed by the task force. Revisions based on the results of field-tests of the first three modules were incorporated into the total package, which can be used by field personnel to teach the course with assured quality and content. **I H J**

CONNECTICUT. **The Center for Open Education** (Storrs; George B. Drumm, Codirector). Sponsored by the University of Connecticut (Storrs). Reported by George B. Drumm in "The Center for Open Education: A Center Without Walls," *Educational Leadership*, 1976, *33*(6), 441-443.

This "traveling" teacher center, funded by the Jessie Smith Noyes Foundation, provides on-site consulting to remote areas. School faculty and staff are involved in planning and implementing Center activities. The Center provides college-credit courses. Some courses are also taught by local teachers with special expertise. The first step after selection of schools to participate in the program is to have the consultant work with the faculty to determine needs of the school and community. The school may participate in both regional and local inservice programs. **D F G**

CONNECTICUT. **The Teacher Center, Inc.** (New Haven; Corinne Levin, Coordinator; Robert Horwitz, Board of Directors). Reported by Corinne Levin and Robert Horwitz in "The Teacher Center, Inc. (New Haven, Connecticut): A Case Study," *Educational Leadership*, 1976, *33*(6), 434-439.

Founded in 1971, this independent nonprofit resource, support, and advisory center is governed by a volunteer Board of Directors and administered by a full-time paid coordinator. Both parents and teachers are members of the Board of Directors. Founded and run by teachers, the Center is unaffiliated with school systems or government agencies. The

Center has a recycling program aimed at collecting discarded usable materials from homes. The Center supports teachers through classroom visits and workshop sessions in their schools, advisory assistance to teachers at the Center, inservice training provided to the school systems, and assistance to other community agencies and programs. **C F K**

FLORIDA. **Individualized teacher education modules.** Sponsored by the Florida State Department of Education (Tallahassee). Reported by Joel L. Burdin and Lorraine L. Poliakoff (Eds.) in *In-Service Education for Rural School Personnel*, Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1973, p. 74. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 073 082)

Individualized teacher education modules available to school districts enable a teacher to work at his or her own pace and at a convenient time. The modules cover teacher-aide training, planning skills, presentation skills, classroom procedures, questioning skills, assessment of students, special skills, and assessment of staff development. The modules comprise booklets, consumable materials, and audiovisual materials. **F I**

KENTUCKY. **Appalachian Education Satellite Project** (Lexington). Reported by William J. Bramble et al. in *Student Achievement: Diagnostic and Prescriptive Reading Instruction, Summer, 1974*, Technical Report No. 8, Lexington, Ky.: Appalachian Education Satellite Project, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 114 066)

A course in diagnostic and prescriptive reading instruction was delivered by satellite to a group of kindergarten through third-grade teachers in the Appalachian region. The course consisted of 12 half-hour color videotaped lessons, 12 pre-taped audio review segments, laboratory activities, unit tests, related reading materials, and three 45-minute seminar programs televised live. **D E H I**

MARYLAND. **The Springbrook/Key Teacher Education Center.** Sponsored by Montgomery County Public Schools and the University of Maryland (College Park). Reported by Wave Starnes in "Inservice Courses: Designed for Teacher Input," in Evelyn DiTosto (Ed.), *Professional Development Centers: The Maryland Approach*, Annapolis, Md.: Maryland State Department of Education, Division of Certification and Accreditation, 1976, p. 24.

The Springbrook/Key Teacher Education Center, located in a junior and senior high school, provides an inservice program that involves contributions from the University of Maryland, College Park, and the Montgomery County Public Schools. A tentative inservice program is outlined after consulting with department heads and teachers. Needs are identified and potential consultants are considered. Training sessions are preceded by a planning session between the consultant and participants. **C G J**

MASSACHUSETTS. **A Resource Linking System for Special Education.** Reported by Richard J. Lavin et al. in *Toward an Improved Regional Delivery System for Special Education Support Services in Massachusetts: Resource Linking System*, Concept Paper, August 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 117 929)

Proposed is a regional model to stimulate and draw together local and state services in a Resource Linking System for Special Education. The system would have the following functions: appraisal of materials, field-based inservice training for teachers and administrators, technical assistance, information, and dissemination. Four main objectives are: *(a)* analyze needs assessment data of local educators; *(b)* link available national, state, and regional resource systems to local services; *(c)* train "peer enablers" (master teachers) to consult with local teachers or administrators; and *(d)* provide a resource and knowledge utilization system for replication in other areas. **G J**

MICHIGAN. **A school-based collaborative inservice program.** Sponsored by Lansing School District, Michigan State University (East Lansing), and Teacher Corps. Reported by Henrietta Barnes and Joyce Putnam in "An Organizational Pattern for In-Service Education," *Introspect* (published by University of Oklahoma, Norman) 1977, 2(3), 5-6. Also by Barbara Ataman et al. in "Improving the Professional Growth Opportunities of Elementary Teaching Personnel," in Roy A. Edelfelt (Ed.), *Inservice Education: Criteria for and Examples of Local Programs*, Bellingham, Wash.: Western Washington State College, 1977, pp. 31-36.

The three sponsors have initiated a school-based collaborative inservice program. By combining the inservice program with the preservice program for Michigan State University interns, practicing teachers are able to have release time to attend inservice sessions in their schools while the interns student teach. Because Michigan State University fac-

ulty and the inservice teachers remain on-site, they are available to return to the classroom if necessary. J L

MINNESOTA. **Project Open.** Sponsored by the University of Minnesota (Minneapolis) and the Minneapolis Public Schools Teacher Center. Reported by Kenneth R. Howey in an unpublished paper, University of Minnesota, undated, p. 49.

Project Open allowed a number of University faculty to assist the schools in design and development of school alternatives. After a three-year developmental period, this model became the prototype for training both preservice and inservice teachers. In return for the University's initial investment in the design of this model, the schools collaborated fully in the design of a teacher education curriculum for preservice teachers desirous of teaching in such schools. This was done concurrently with the planning of inservice programs for experienced teachers who wished to move toward more open classrooms. C

NEW HAMPSHIRE. **Live, Learn, and Teach Model** (Durham; Sid Eder, Director). Sponsored by the University of New Hampshire (Durham), Department of Education.

This experimental program at the University of New Hampshire is designed for both preservice and inservice education and emphasizes the exploration of alternative learning and teaching approaches in environments that encourage creativity. Major characteristics of the program include activity-centered learning, collaborative team teaching, community-based education, interdisciplinary curriculums, strategies for implementing experimental learning in traditional school structures, multi-age learning, and teacher-student interactive skills. D J

NEW JERSEY. **Inservice programs based on research on teacher effectiveness** (Trenton). Sponsored by Educational Testing Service (Princeton), National Commission on Performance-Based Education (Frederick J. McDonald, Director).

Research is being conducted in the Trenton school system to determine teacher effectiveness. Results are being used to design inservice programs. Preliminary indications are that the training programs, which focus on basic skills, have significantly influenced the grade-level performance of the participants' students. O

NORTH CAROLINA. **Appalachian Training Complex** (Boone). Sponsored by Appalachian State University (Boone). Reported by Joel L. Burdin and Lorraine L. Poliakoff (Eds.) in *In-Service Education for*

*Rural School Personnel*, Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1973, pp. 76-77. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 073 082)

Retraining is provided for administrators, teachers, and aides, using schools in the region as educational laboratories. Needs analysis and program decisions are made cooperatively. The Complex itself serves as a catalyst. Programs are developed in one school, which then becomes a training center for other schools. **C L**

OHIO. **Educational redesign and renewal.** Sponsored by Ohio Department of Education (Columbus), Division of Educational Redesign and Renewal (Virginia L. Kunkle, Director). Reported by Virginia L. Kunkle in "Educational Redesign and Renewal for Elementary and Secondary Schools," *Inservice*, May 1976, pp. 2-3.

The Division of Educational Redesign and Renewal provides noncommercial material, resources, and consultation through a product-oriented teacher-centered approach to staff development. Three areas coordinated by the Division are the Ohio Right to Read effort, curriculum redesign, and inservice education. The project has four primary goals: *(a)* provide a ready source of instructional guidelines for schools; *(b)* develop programmed inservice materials for teachers; *(c)* assist in institutionalizing diagnostic inservice education; and *(d)* develop inservice materials on methodology that can apply to any textbook series or the existing supply of print materials used by schools. **I**

OREGON. **Portland Consortium Training Complex.** Sponsored by Portland Public Schools, Portland State University, Portland Association of Teachers, and Teacher Corps. Reported by Mary Gourley in "The Relationship of Inservice Education to Program Improvement," *Inservice*, October 1976, pp. 3, 11-12. Also by Mary Gourley in "Relating Inservice Education to Program Improvement: An Overview of the Portland Consortium Training Complex," in Roy A. Edelfelt (Ed.), *Inservice Education: Criteria for and Examples of Local Programs*, Bellingham, Wash.: Western Washington State College, 1977, pp. 65-69.

The Portland Consortium Training Complex is an urban training complex based on student, teacher, and community needs. A collaborative decision-making model provides parity and equity. Features of the Complex include: *(a)* cooperative planning by the local school district, the institution of higher education, the local education agency, and the

community; *(b)* management consistent with a collaborative decision-making model; and *(c)* community, preservice, and inservice program components that are derived from needs assessment activities in a school setting. The inservice component is related to program improvement in two ways: inservice activities designed in response to the immediate needs of the teachers; and use of the Comfield Model, based on the assessment of desired outcomes for the specific student population and the assessment of institutional progress within the project. **J K**

PENNSYLVANIA. **The University Inservice Teacher Education Network** (Betty B. Schantz, Director). Sponsored by the School District of Philadelphia, Philadelphia Federation of Teachers, Philadelphia Association of School Administrators, Pennsylvania Department of Education, Beaver College, Cheyney State College, Pennsylvania State University, Temple University, Villanova University, and West Chester State College.

The Network is administered by a Board of Directors representative of the five constituent groups, with members responsible for obtaining "at home" agreements from their respective organizations and/or institutions. After a year-long planning process, the Network opened in September 1976 in cooperation with the Philadelphia Intermediate Unit. During its first year of operation, most of its attention was devoted to working out administrative/management agreements and to the offering of a limited number of inservice education courses. This model of cooperation between the various constituent groups is envisioned as a beginning effort in a statewide system to meet the inservice needs of classroom teachers and administrators as they themselves describe their educational goals. **J**

PENNSYLVANIA. **Inservice education through computer-assisted instruction.** Sponsored by Pennsylvania State University (University Park). Reported by Joel L. Burdin and Lorraine L. Poliakoff (Eds.) in *In-Service Education for Rural School Personnel*, Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1973, pp. 78-79. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 073 082)

Teachers in Appalachian Pennsylvania are brought computer-assisted instruction via a mobile van. The program assists teachers in recognizing and helping children with handicaps. Using a central IBM computer instructional system with 15 terminals, the program offers private tutoring for each teacher at convenient hours. A systems manager travels

with the van and hires a systems operator and two proctors at each stop. **A D M**

TEXAS. **Professional Development Center.** Sponsored by the University of Houston.

A staff development center serving preservice teachers, graduate students, university faculty, and inservice teachers, the Professional Development Center features a variety of print and nonprint resources. Supported by the community and the University, the Center is able to provide the latest in educational resources. **C**

VIRGINIA. **Campbell County Teachers Center** (Rustburg; Edward H. Yeatts, Coordinator of Staff Development). Sponsored by Campbell County Public Schools. Reported by Edward H. Yeatts in "Staff Development: A Teacher-Centered In-Service Design," *Educational Leadership*, 1976, *33*(6), 417-421.

Originally a project under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Center relies heavily on teacher suggestions for planning activities, and teachers have a major say in determining the inservice program. There are three professional staff members at the Center who came directly from teaching positions in the system. A Teacher Center Advisory Committee of 42 teachers and 6 lay persons takes the responsibility for assessing inservice education. The Center provides the following services: *(a)* communicates teachers' needs; *(b)* assesses the value of inservice programs and suggests additional ones; *(c)* keeps aware of teacher talents to be used; *(d)* participates in selecting and planning inservice experiences, especially single-unit courses for graduate credit and/or certificate renewal; *(e)* disseminates information; and *(f)* assists in selecting and purchasing materials. **C J**

WEST VIRGINIA. **Kanawha Valley Multi-Institutional Teacher Education Center** (Charleston). Reported by Linda Clark Tague (Ed.) in *Teacher Centering: A National Institute*, Conference Report, Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1976, p. 66. (Disseminated by the National Resource and Dissemination Center, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620).

Kanawha Valley Multi-Institutional Teacher Education Center is a consortium serving a geographic region of West Virginia. The Center is a facilitating and coordinating agency that pools the resources, human and financial, of five colleges, four school systems, the state department of education, and the community to improve the quality of preservice and

inservice training. The Center operates in a quasi-independent capacity, with Kanawha County School System acting as fiscal agent. A Board of Directors, composed of representatives from the colleges, the school systems, teachers, the state department, student teachers, and professional education associations, acts as governing body of the Center. The Center facilitates the offering of a variety of staff development and inservice training programs in each of the four counties it serves. **C**

NATIONAL. **Inservice education by satellite.** Sponsored by the National Education Association (Washington, D. C.). Reported in *Using Satellite Technology to Increase Professional Communications Among Teachers: A Report of Experiments Conducted by the National Education Association,* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Division of Instruction and Professional Development, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 118 140)

The National Education Association, in conjunction with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the National Library of Medicine, the Alaska Broadcasting Commission, and the Pacific PEACESAT Network, conducted four satellite experiments designed to improve professional communication among teachers. These programs were the Satellite Seminar, the NEA-Alaska Hour, NEASAT, and the Pan-Pacific Satellite Pilot Series. The report concluded that *(a)* teacher-to-teacher exchange is the program's most important aspect; *(b)* when the course is offered for credit, there is less teacher participation; *(c)* sufficient time must be allowed to mail materials in advance of the program; *(d)* a site coordinator is essential at every location; and *(e)* prior local coordination should be established with all potential users of a satellite radio station to select an optimum site. **D E**

NATIONAL. **The National Foundation for the Improvement of Education Teacher Center Project** (Washington, D.C.; Roy A. Edelfelt, Director). Sponsored by the National Foundation for the Improvement of Education and the National Education Association.

Through state affiliates of the National Education Association the program assists teachers in selected states in capitalizing on the experience of existing teacher centers in the U.S. in planning and establishing new teacher centers. The multi-year project will bring together consultants and teacher groups to promote interchange of ideas and prospects for teacher centers through workshops and visitations. Emphasis will also be on documentation to provide a narrative of on-site teacher center experience. **F G H J L**

NATIONAL. **Project on Utilization of Inservice Education Research and Development Outcomes** (Robert A. Luke, Director). Sponsored by the National Education Association (Washington, D. C.).

"Transportable" inservice training programs that were developed as a result of recent research are disseminated through the National Education Association's network of state affiliates and local associations. There are six pilot states for the project and 30 pilot programs. Each product entered into the system *(a)* is directed toward practicing teachers, *(b)* emphasizes knowing how to do something—that is, theory into practice, *(c)* requires active participation rather than passive behavior, *(d)* is a result of research-and-development activities, *(e)* can be used independently of persons associated with the development, and *(f)* is available for purchase or rental to any educator or school in the country. **D I M**

NATIONAL. **Teacher organization-sponsored teacher centers.** Sponsored by the American Federation of Teachers (Washington, D. C.) and its local affiliates.

The American Federation of Teachers is interested in working with teacher educators in establishing and maintaining teacher centers for inservice education. Centers have been established by local affiliates of the American Federation of Teachers in Detroit, New York, and Great Neck, Long Island. **C**

## Concept Papers/Inservice Models

Giddings, Morsley G. Staff development: A proposal for teacher educators: Part 1. *Staff Development Newsletter*, March 1976, Vol. 2, No. 8, pp. 16-20.

Giddings proposes the establishment of Faculty Centers for staff development. The purpose of the Centers would be to orient, inform, retool, upgrade, update, and keep contemporary new and veteran faculty members with regard to existing and new alternative programs as well as new concepts and thinking in the field of education. The proposal has five components: training and improvement; counseling; appraisal and/or evaluation; communication; and research and development. The project would use programs and consultants requested by the faculty. **C**

Heldman, Lawrence. In-service education for school personnel in remote rural areas. In Joel L. Burdin and Lorraine L. Poliakoff (Eds.),

*In-service education for rural school personnel.* Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1973. Pp. 12-24. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 073 082)

The model for this project has four interrelated elements: *(a)* a staff member who will engage in an inservice program; *(b)* an inservice diagnostician who will work with the staff member to identify needs and interests and plan a course of action; *(c)* a national center that will prepare and disseminate personalized programs; *(d)* a mentor or counselor who will be available to the staff member during the program. The inservice diagnostician would work with the staff member to identify and prioritize needs, and appropriate materials would be requested from the national center. The staff member would begin work on his or her program, calling on the mentor as needed. Problems would be dealt with through conferences with the inservice diagnostician and/or the mentor. **A I M**

Krahmer, Edward. Individualizing remote in-service teacher education programs for rural areas. In Joel L. Burdin and Lorraine L. Poliakoff (Eds.), *In-service education for rural school personnel.* Washington, D. C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1973. Pp. 24-41. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 073 082)

This model for individualizing inservice education is based on a contract between an inservice educator and an instructor. The contract would encompass the following elements: performance objectives; alternatives for meeting the objectives; instructional approaches for fulfilling each alternative; and measurement of attainment of objectives. It would also specify the minimum and maximum amount of time necessary for completion. The system could be developed through a consortium of institutions of higher education serving a particular rural area or through an individual institution of higher education. Packaged inservice programs could be used. Each inservice educator should have access to a contact person (who is in the school), an advisor (to provide counseling and feedback), and an instructor (possibly but not necessarily a faculty member of an institution of higher education). The programs could be completed either for credit or noncredit. **A B M**

Orlikow, Lionel. The voucher system: An integration of inservice support services through the teacher as consumer. In Joel L. Burdin and Lorraine L. Poliakoff (Eds.), *In-service education for rural school personnel.* Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Edu-

cation, 1973. Pp. 43-47. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 073 082)

State departments of education should provide *(a)* vouchers, redeemable in course credits, to individual teachers for staff development purposes and *(b)* regionally based program teams that would work with teachers in assessing their needs and establishing linkages with various education agencies. A voucher could purchase service from any form of education agency, be it university, government, or voluntary. No institution would possess a monopoly on course delivery; each would compete to satisfy the needs of teachers as expressed through the vouchers. The regional or community-based program development teams would work with teachers in a cooperative approach to self-development. Courses could be delivered in many ways—individual tutorials, seminars, individualized study, and guided clinical activities. Use of local human resources would be encouraged. **K F M**

## Selected Research/Theory about Inservice Education

Agne, Russell M., & Ducharme, Edward R. Rearranging the parts: A modest proposal for continuing and inservice education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 1977, *28*(2), 16-19.

The authors discuss problems of school-college cooperation on inservice education, such as misunderstanding, invasion of turf, administrative structure, and finance. They suggest a model for collaboration: Inservice Education Associates. The Associates would be made available to a Center for Inservice Education through a college. The Center would be part of the teaching load for participating faculty, and income received from schools would go to the Center. This system would provide structure, coordination, and organization. Graduate students could also be used at the Center.

Edelfelt, Roy A. *Inservice education: Criteria for local programs*. Bellingham, Wash.: Western Washington State College, 1976.

Edelfelt has identified 29 interrelated and interdependent criteria for inservice programs and grouped them into five sections, each influencing the others and representing a total concept of inservice education.

*Decision-Making*

1. Decision-making processes are based on cooperation between all

major interest groups, that is, school district, college/university, and teacher organization.

2. Decisions are made by the people who are affected, and the decisions are made as close as possible to the situation where they will be operative.

3. The cooperation of major interest groups is based on a concept of parity for each party.

4. Explicit procedures exist to assure fairness in decision-making.

5. There are policies (e.g., in a collective-bargaining agreement) related to inservice education.

6. Inservice education programs are institutionalized.

*Relationship to the Program of the School*

7. Inservice education is directly related to curriculum development.

8. Inservice education is directly related to instructional improvement.

9. Inservice education is based on the needs of students.

10. Inservice education is based on the needs of teachers.

11. Inservice education is based on the needs of school program.

12. Inservice education is a part of a teacher's regular teaching load.

13. The techniques and methods used in inservice education are consistent with fundamental principles of good teaching and learning.

14. Research/evaluation is an integral part of inservice education.

15. All those who participate in inservice education are engaged in both learning and teaching.

*Resources*

16. Time is available during regular instructional hours for inservice education.

17. Adequate personnel are available from the school district and college/university for inservice education.

18. Adequate materials are available.

19. Inservice education makes use of community resources.

20. Funds for inservice education are provided by the local school district.

21. Inservice education is paid for by state funds provided for that purpose.

*Commitment to Teacher Education*

22. Professional growth is seen as a continuum from preservice preparation through career-long professional development.

23. The inservice education program reflects the many different ways that professionals grow.

24. The inservice education program addresses the many different roles and responsibilities that a teacher must assume.

25. Inservice education is related to research and development.

26. The respective strengths of the school district, the college/university, the teacher organization, and the community are used in the inservice education program.

27. Internship and student teaching experiences are used for analysis and study in the inservice education program.
28. Inservice education is available to all professional and non-professional personnel.

*Rewards*

29. There is a reward system for teachers, administrators, and college/university personnel who engage in inservice education programs. (pp. 5-17)

Hite, Herbert. Inservice education: Perceptions, purposes, and practices. In Herbert Hite & Kenneth R. Howey, *Planning inservice teacher education: Promising alternatives*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1977. Pp. 1-20.

Hite analyzes different but effective approaches to inservice teacher education. He identifies fifteen factors, four that influence the purpose of a program, two that set limits for the program, and nine that characterize the program. He also explores determiners of inservice programs and steps in planning inservice education.

Howey, Kenneth R. A framework for planning alternative approaches to inservice teacher education. In Herbert Hite & Kenneth R. Howey, *Planning inservice teacher education: Promising alternatives*. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1977. Pp. 21-61.

Howey provides a perspective on inservice education in terms of its relationship to a number of other variables: the changing nature of society and schools; the nature of the teacher education experience prior to inservice education; and the changing nature of the human personality over time. Also, current trends are noted, giving a "kaleidoscope" of inservice approaches.

Joyce, Bruce R. Structural imagination and staff development. *Inservice*, March 1977, p. 3. Also in Bruce R. Joyce, Kenneth R. Howey, & Sam J. Yarger, *Issues to face*. Inservice Teacher Education Concepts Project, Report No. 1. Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1976. Pp. 5-7.

Joyce describes several dimensions that interact in an effective inservice program. The four dimensions are:

- the governance system—the decision-making structures;
- the substantive system—the content and process of inservice education;

- the delivery system—incentives, interfaces, access, and motivation;
- the modal system—the forms of inservice education.

"To treat the problem of inservice education as structural is to suggest that what is needed is not a pasting up of the old machine, but a building of a new one. There is something wrong with too many of the major dimensions of inservice education as it is presently being practiced, and partial or small solutions will probably have very little effect in the long run" (p.3).

Jung, Charles. Instructional systems for professional development. *Theory into Practice*, 1972, *11*(5), 278-284.

Five kinds of inservice training needs are identified by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory: new curriculum, use of technology, organizational improvement, training for intercultural needs, and generic process training. To fill these needs, 15 competency instructional systems are being developed. Although teachers are the primary target, administrators, paraprofessionals, students, volunteers, and parents are sometimes included.

Lawrence, Gordon, Baker, Dennis, Elzie, Patricia, & Hansen, Barbara. Patterns of effective inservice education. *Inservice*, February 1977, pp. 1-3, 8.

Profiles of 97 inservice programs were studied for situational design, mediation, influence agent, objectives, and patterns of management. The findings indicated that "the inservice programs that have the best chance of being effective are those that involve teachers in planning and managing their own professional development activities, pursuing personal and collective objectives, sharing, applying new learnings and receiving feedback" (p. 8). Other specific research results are reported.

Nash, Robert J., & Ducharme, Edward R. The university can prepare teachers—An unfashionable view. *The Educational Forum*, 1974, *39*(1), 99-109.

Four areas of university contribution to inservice education are suggested: a center for intellectual reflection, a center for research and evaluation—scholarly investigation, a "revitalization center" for personal support and growth, and a place to learn new skills.

Nelson, Marilyn. Creating organizational structures for the in-service training of teachers. In *Cultural pluralism and social change*. Inservice Teacher Education Concepts Project, Report No. 5. Palo Alto,

Calif.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1976. Pp. 71-84.

Five basic organizational structures for inservice education are identified: *(a)* the higher education model, in which schools or colleges provide inservice education through late afternoon and weekend courses, summer sessions, and extension courses; *(b)* contemporary-topics institutes, which use a broader diversity of resources than the higher education model but are designed on the basis of current topics; one-time-only workshops are common; *(c)* the commerce model, an inservice pattern that relies primarily on consultants and entrepreneurs who offer more extended training packages; *(d)* the institution of higher education-local education agency cooperative model, in which there are planned attempts by the institution of higher education to design programs more specifically for the needs of a district and, in turn, the school system serves as a laboratory for research-and-development interests of the institution of higher education; and *(e)* the systematic corporate model, a more coherent approach that includes a quasi-legal framework, a conceptual framework, a design framework, and a support system.

Yarger, Sam J. An exploratory model for program development in inservice education. In *Creative authority and collaboration: A collection of position papers*. Inservice Teacher Education Concepts Project, Report No. 4. Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1976. Pp. 6-32.

In the context of a broader discussion, Yarger suggests seven descriptions of structures for inservice education programs and four descriptions of functions. "Although no inservice program will fit perfectly into either a single organizational style or functional type, one can usually organize a 'best fit' " (p. 19).

*Organizational Types*

- the independent inservice program;
- the almost independent inservice program;
- the professional organization inservice program;
- the single-unit inservice program;
- the free-partnership inservice program;
- the free-consortium inservice program;
- the legislative/political inservice program.

*Functional Types*

- the facilitating type;

- the advocacy type;
- the responsive type;
- the functionally unique type.

## Other Related References

Banks, James A. Increasing teacher competency. In *Final report and recommendations of the Summer Institute on the Improvement and Reform of American Education*. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Publication No. (OE) 75-12008. Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1974. Pp. 173-206.

Denemark, George W. Challenging traditional views of teaching and teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 1977, *28*(2), 6-8.

Denemark, George, & Yff, Joost. *Obligation for reform*. Final Report of the Higher Education Task Force on Improvement and Reform in American Education. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1974.

Edelfelt, Roy. Inservice education of teachers: Priority for the next decade. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 1974, *25*(3), 250-252.

Edelfelt, Roy. The school of education and inservice education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 1977, *28*(2), 10-14.

Edelfelt, Roy, & Johnson, Margo. (Eds.). *Rethinking in-service education*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1975. Especially, Roy Edelfelt & Gordon Lawrence, Inservice education: The state of the art, pp. 9-24.

Houston, W. Robert, Cooper, J. M., & Warner, A. R. *School-Based Teacher Education Project: Report of first-year activities, 1975-1976*. SBTE Publication No. 9. Houston, Texas: University of Houston, Teacher Center, 1976.

Houston, W. Robert, Cooper, J. M., & Warner, A. R. *School-Based Teacher Education Project: Report of second-year activities, 1976-1977*. SBTE Publication No. 12. Houston, Texas: University of Houston, Teacher Center, 1977.

Howey, Kenneth R. *Current perspectives and evolving trends in inservice education in the United States*. Paris, France: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1976.

Howey, Kenneth R. Putting inservice teacher education into perspective. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 1976, *27*(2), 101-106.

Howsam, Robert B., Corrigan, Dean C., Denemark, George W., & Nash, Robert J. *Educating a profession*. Report of the Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1976. Especially pp. 78-112.

Joyce, Bruce R., Howey, Kenneth R., & Yarger, Sam J. *Issues to face*. Inservice Teacher Education Concepts Project, Report No. 1. Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1976.

Lawrence, Gordon, Baker, Dennis, Elzie, Patricia, & Hansen, Barbara. *Patterns of effective inservice education*. Tallahassee, Fla.: Department of Education, 1974.

Luke, Robert A. *The teacher role in inservice education*. Paper presented at a conference sponsored by the National Council of States on Inservice Education, New Orleans, November 1976.

Mann, Dale. The politics of training teachers in schools. *Teachers College Record*, 1976, *27*(3), 323-338.

Massanari, Karl. (Ed.). *Higher education's role in inservice education*. Highlights of a Leadership Training Institute, Atlanta, December 1976. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1977.

McDonald, Frederick J. Criteria and methods for evaluating inservice training programs. In *Issues in inservice education: State action for inservice*. Report of a conference sponsored by the National Council of States on Inservice Education, New Orleans, November 1976. Pp. 69-73.

Nicholson, Alexander M., Joyce, Bruce R., Parker, Donald W., & Waterman, Floyd T. *The literature on inservice teacher education: An analytic review*. Inservice Teacher Education Concepts Project, Report No. 3. Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1976.

Roberts, Richard. *Western Kentucky University's Teacher Corps project inservice education program*. Paper presented at American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education Leadership Training In-

stitute on Higher Education's Role in Inservice Education, Atlanta, December 1976.

Rubin, Louis J. (Ed.). *Improving inservice education: Proposals and procedures for change*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1971.

Ryan, Kevin. (Ed.). *Teacher education*. 74th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

Smith, B. Othanel. *Teachers for the real world*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969.

*Towards a national policy for the induction and in-service training of teachers in schools*. Report by the Induction and Inservice Subcommittee of the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers. London, England: Elizabeth House, York Road, 1976.

Yarger, Sam J., et al. *Educators together: Toward inservice education policy*. Report of the New York State Conference on Inservice Education, New York, May 1976. New York: New York State Teacher Corps Network, 1976. (Distributed by the National Council of States on Inservice Education, Syracuse University)

Yarger, Sam J., & Mertens, Sally K. About the education of teachers—A letter to Virginia. In *Issues in inservice education: State action for inservice*. Report of a conference sponsored by the National Council of States on Inservice Education, New Orleans, November 1976. Pp. 35-40.

Van Ryn, Mike, & Santelli, Charles. Financing inservice education—A dialogue. In *Issues in inservice education: State action for inservice*. Report of a conference sponsored by the National Council of States on Inservice Education, New Orleans, November 1976. Pp. 55-61.